

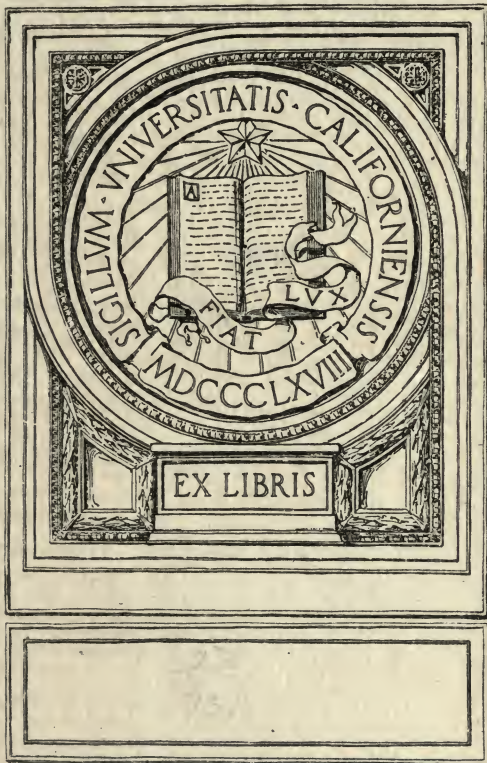
A Citizens' Army

The Swiss System

JULIAN GRANDE

WITH AN INTRODUCTION BY
COLONEL F. FEYLER

GIFT OF
MICHAEL REESE



see pg 67 MS


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A CITIZENS' ARMY
THE SWISS SYSTEM

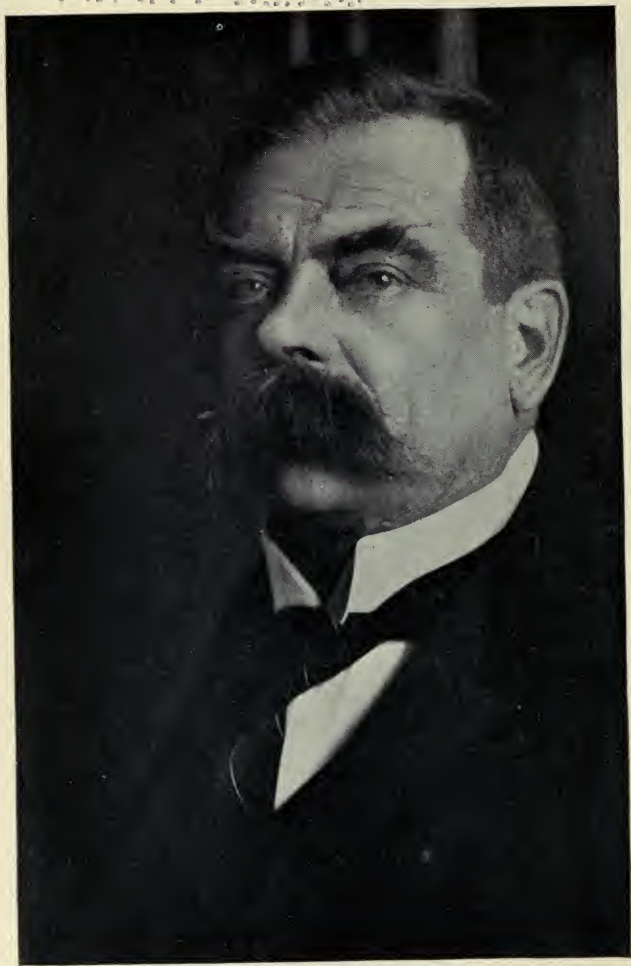
BY THE SAME AUTHOR

THE BERNESE OBERLAND IN SUMMER & WINTER

THE LAND AND THE BOOK

(EDITED BY MR. GRANDE)

UNIV. OF
CALIFORNIA



COLONEL DECOPPET.

Swiss Minister of War: President of the Swiss Confederation for 1916

A CITIZENS' ARMY

THE SWISS SYSTEM

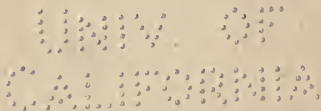
BY

JULIAN GRANDE

WITH AN INTRODUCTION BY

COLONEL FEYLER

MILITARY CRITIC OF THE 'JOURNAL DE GENÈVE.'



LONDON
CHATTO & WINDUS
1916

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L. C.

DEDICATIONS

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IN THE UNITED STATES OF AMERICA
THIS BOOK
IS RESPECTFULLY DEDICATED TO
THEODORE ROOSEVELT ESQ.

A WISE STATESMAN AND A FAR-SEEING PATRIOT

"WHAT lessons," asks Major-General Francis V. Greene, of the United States Volunteers, "are we in these United States to draw from this war? In what manner and to what extent do these recent changes in the art of war affect us? The answer is that if we are to avoid the risk of a financial panic of such magnitude as has never been imagined, of the payment of enormous indemnities, and the possible loss of our freedom, then we must have:—

"First, a navy somewhat larger than that of any other nation except one, and such a swarm of submarines as will enable us to make some sort of defence against the greatest navy.

"Second, a sufficient number of trained soldiers to prevent landing on our coasts in case the enemy should defeat or elude our navy; or, in case we do not succeed in preventing a landing, that we delay the advance until we can develop our immense latent resources in men and materials.

"Third, the co-ordination of our industrial development with our military requirements; so that in case of war we can utilize our vast economic strength.

"We have more accumulated wealth than any other two nations; we have a greater mileage of railways than all Europe; of motor cars and trucks we possess probably twice as many as all the nations of Europe combined; of iron and steel, we produce as much as the total of any other three nations, and of copper more than all the rest of the world; of telephones in use we have three times as many as the aggregate of all the nations now at war; and of telegraph lines as many miles as any other two nations. Here are elements of military strength which, properly utilized in connection with a sufficiency of trained soldiers, will protect us from defeat—possibly make us immune from attack. But our trained soldiers are barely 1 per 1,000 of population, while those of possible enemies are 60 per 1,000, and there is no correlation between our mines, our factories, our means of transportation and communication on the one hand, and our military establishment and plans of defence on the other. That we are quick and resourceful in an emergency is universally conceded, but to rely upon this in place of military training and proper co-ordination of our economic resources is to invite certain disaster."

*(From the New York "Outlook," January 26th, 1916.
Extract from an Address delivered by Major-General
Greene, before the New York Historical Association.)*

DEDICATED
TO
THE HONOURED MEMORY OF THE LATE
FIELD-MARSHAL LORD ROBERTS

"THE essential idea of National Service is the participation, from motives of patriotism only, of the whole body of citizens in the defence of the State. It regards such service as the first right, as well as the first duty, which freedom confers. In a community such as our own, in which the democratic ideal of 'the Government for the people and by the people' has been practically realized, how can the taint, which justly attaches to conscription, have anything to do with an army raised by the free and uncontrolled act of the entire nation? The power which in such a State summons, by the exercise of its sovereign will, a nation to arms can, by the exercise of the same will, disband that army. Of what unjust power can such an army become the instrument? It is the army not of a despot but of the nation; and as a nation's army, or rather as a nation in arms, its very nature is a warranty of peace whenever peace is consistent with national honour, and the sacred duty of protecting the Fatherland."

(From the Introduction to "A Nation in Arms," by the late Lord Roberts.)

AUTHOR'S NOTE

THIS book, whose essential purpose is to show that it is possible to have an army without militarism, is a work intended to serve no political party, nor has it been inspired by any League or Society.

The opinions expressed by various Swiss, belonging to wholly different classes of the community, concerning the practical effects on everyday life of their system of universal military service, will prove, I hope, particularly valuable.

The Introduction by Colonel Feyler, military critic of the *Journal de Genève*, and the opinions of M. Horace Micheli, a member of the Swiss Parliament, and of my other Swiss friends and contributors, were originally written in German or French, and were translated into English by my wife, whose criticisms and suggestions have been of inestimable help to me.

For many of the facts regarding the Swiss army system of to-day I am indebted to what is the standard work upon it, *Schweizer Heereskunde*, by Colonel Karl Egli, 2nd edition, published by Schulthess & Co., Zürich, to whom I tender my thanks and acknowledgments.

The illustrations are from photographs supplied to me by Keller, the well-known military photographer in Berne, and by one or two private friends.

JULIAN GRANDE.

Berne, April, 1916.

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INTRODUCTION

By COLONEL F. FEYLER

(Military Critic of the "Journal de Genève" and
Editor of the "Revue Militaire Suisse.")

THE best army is that which is best adapted to the habits and social conditions of the people for whom it is intended. If in its system it faithfully abides by the constitution and spirit of the nation, and it has the added advantage of tradition, which is as it were the cement, solidified by time and destined to unite together the stones of the edifice, then that army will be sound.

The Swiss Confederation is a conglomeration of twenty-two small republics, which for a long period were almost independent of one another. Originally the sole bonds of union between them were the ideals, common to them all, of individual independence and social equality, as well as

community of economic interests. Each of these republics is a minute State, possessing all the machinery of national government—a legislative authority, an executive authority, and a judicial authority. Over and above all else, the sovereign power in each of them is represented by the people, who, in virtue of very extensive rights of intervention in constitutional and legislative matters, are able not merely to exercise permanent control, but effectively and directly to participate in the management of the State.

Save for the modifications necessarily introduced as history advanced, this principle has prevailed in the management of internal affairs since the earliest days of the Swiss Confederation, in the thirteenth century, when, although numbering three States only—Schwytz, Uri, and Unterwalden—it laid the foundations of an association destined to weld them all into one. From this time forth their association assumed the character of a military union; and in order to impose upon outsiders respect for the democratic ideals of the Confederates and to safeguard their common interests, these three States

entered into a mutual agreement that in case one of them should be the object of any kind of aggression on the part of a neighbouring power, the other two should put their means of defence at its disposal.

These means of defence could only be such as were within the reach of small and poor rustic populations. In the age of chivalry, when richly caparisoned knights in armour with numerous well-armed retainers were the order of the day, the mountain dwellers in the Forest Cantons could count on no one and nothing but themselves, and their rustic arms, which they were forced to fashion with their own hands. Accordingly, this was what they did. Convinced that the great lords, under whose authority—in their opinion a usurped authority—they lived, would do their utmost to crush their efforts at independence, they resolved that every mountain-bred peasant of them should become a soldier the moment he was strong enough to be able to wield a woodcutter's axe, and that a soldier he should remain until his strength failed him. Thus the Swiss Confederation, while still in its infancy, was already a nation in arms in

the widest sense of the word—that is, there were as many soldiers as citizens.

It is not enough, however, to have men. Even with the simplest description of armament some training is necessary, without which an army is a mere mob. In the writings of the old chroniclers descriptions may be found of how the first Swiss made soldiers out of their men, and how these soldiers were formed into fighting units and armies. At a period when what are now called pleasures and amusements were few, and when intellectual study was usually the privilege of the clergy alone, the one pleasure, the one amusement, not to say the one study was the use of arms. In any case this pleasure served a useful purpose, bearing as it did directly on the necessities of the chase; for a people living, as did the Swiss of those days, in valleys more or less remote from trading centres and abounding in game of every sort, naturally depended greatly upon hunting as a means of livelihood.

As for what the soldiers had learnt being put to a practical test, quarrels with neighbour States afforded plentiful opportunities

for this; and the men of the Forest Cantons took advantage of these quarrels to organize what were neither more nor less than expeditions into the surrounding country. Contemporary writings contain numerous allusions to such expeditions, in which companies of one, two, and three hundred men took part. When the number of men attained three hundred, however, they always sallied forth to battle with their colours flying, all which accustomed the combatants to discipline, the leader to command, and both to unity of action. If we reflect that the object of these expeditions, which was most frequently merely to loot some isolated chalets, was quite disproportionate to the number of men involved and the order observed, we shall soon arrive at the conclusion that they were in reality attempts to make practical application of what had been learned. In other words, they were what are now known in every army in the world as periods of manœuvres.

This, however, is not all. Such training was chiefly concerned with offensive manœuvres, and small countries such as the Helvetian States, surrounded by the

territories of powerful Lords, were bound also to provide for the contingency of defence. This they did with the help of a number of fortifications which, for the age, must have entailed considerable labour and very heavy expense.

So much effort, however, was not in vain. One fine day the inevitable happened, and the sovereign lords represented by the famous House of Hapsburg (the same as that from which the Austrian Emperors have sprung), feeling annoyed and to some extent alarmed by the signs of independence being manifested by the valley-dwellers, asserted that they must restore what they considered to be their rights, which they looked upon as menaced. An encounter took place at the foot of a hill in central Switzerland called the Morgarten. At the foot of this hill the Swiss nation in arms—strong in the union of these small independent States, in the discipline which it had voluntarily undergone, and the practical knowledge of warfare which it had perseveringly acquired—routed the numerous and wealthy cohorts of the Dukes of Hapsburg. This victory, which the Swiss call

their victory of liberty, hallowed the confederate association of the Helvetian States, and it hallowed something else besides: the tradition of a citizen's army, of which it was the beginning.

This was the point from which the Swiss Army set out, and Mr. Julian Grande's book shows the point at which it has arrived at the present day. He shows how no departure has been made from the fundamental principle, and how this principle has been applied in modern Switzerland, now become an industrial country, politically, and above all socially, metamorphosed. As in the earliest times, the rule that every Swiss shall be liable for military service figures in the forefront of Switzerland's constitutional law; and, as a matter of fact, every Swiss, excepting only those who are physically incapacitated, recognises and submits to this duty. Everything, however, has become more complicated because so-called progress has precisely the effect of complicating the institutions which it develops and perfects. This law of the complicating effects of progress has affected the organisation both of social conditions and of the

army; and in each case the duty of a citizen, which is also his right, to serve the community or his country by arms has had to be subordinated thereto.

Among the changes in the political and social conditions of the Swiss Confederation some have been beneficial to the development of the army, and others not. Chief among the beneficial changes must be placed that political progress which has gradually caused Switzerland to evolve from the condition of a *Confederation of States* to that of a Federative State. Let me explain my meaning. I have already said that the Swiss Confederation was a conglomeration of twenty-two independent republics, the independence of which is merely relative. Originally very great, it left each republic—in other words, each Swiss Canton—free to organise its armed forces as seemed to it most expedient and most in accordance with its traditions. When war threatened each Canton put its militia forces at the disposal of the Confederation, and all were then put under one single command.

This was inevitably the case under the

system of a Confederation of States, each Canton having not only its government but its public services, postal system, coinage, etc., as well as its own law and its own army. Since then, owing to the exigencies of modern life, this independence of the Cantons has been whittled down to a modified form of autonomy. A series of prerogatives dependent upon political sovereignty have been transferred to the central authority. I would particularly mention, among others, the great public services, the minting of money, customs, the postal service and railways. Then began a steady movement towards the unification of law, and at the same time the army organisation tended to be more centralised. Thus was established the system of a Federative State, a system which, as regards military matters, has had the effect of causing the cantonal militia forces to be abolished and their place taken by Swiss militia forces, directly responsible to the Federal Government. The natural result of this has been to ensure a more complete utilisation of all the country's resources, and, above all, greater unity of management and action.

While, however, political modifications were simplifying the constitution of the army, economic and social changes on the one hand and technical military progress on the other were complicating the solution of army problems. So long as all citizens engaged in similar occupations, or occupations which amount to the same thing, all lived the same kind of life, it was easy to require from them the performance of identical military duties. The personal sacrifice was always the same, and this was all the more so because "scientific" warfare did not as yet exist, and consequently a great deal more time was not needed to train soldiers belonging to special categories than to train other soldiers. When commercial avocations became more diversified, and consequently conditions more unequal, while at the same time the progress of science necessitated the introduction of more division of labour into the army system, the principle of equality of personal sacrifice had somehow or other to be reconciled with the exigencies of the training of troops, it being necessary to have not only good soldiers

but better officers and non-commissioned officers.

Here, more than at any other time, the value of traditions made itself felt. It is they which have developed in the Swiss citizen the essential idea that military service is not only a duty but a right, a prerogative of citizenship, of which no one can be deprived except by the judgment of a court of law or by an equivalent sentence pronounced by some higher authority, and this only for some unworthy action. Exclusion from military service is part and parcel of deprivation of civic rights, and constitutes a state of inferiority.

On the other hand, so far as is practicable, it ought to be possible for any man to become an officer, provided he have the requisite natural aptitudes. The law allows officers progressive increases of pay the higher their rank; but this alone would be insufficient inducement without those traditions which confer a certain prestige, in the eyes of people in general, upon the wearer of stripes. As a rule those who attain the rank of officer are men who, in civilian life, are not without some influence due

to their intelligence, strength of character, or achievements.

Last but not least, it is the duty of an officer to accept promotion, which, however, entails increased military obligations, and it is a tradition that he must make these greater sacrifices demanded of him not solely by reason of social position but in proportion to his spirit of self-sacrifice. For instance, a summons to attend an extra course of military instruction will have to take precedence of any anxiety on his part to add to his professional earnings; and a man who can sacrifice these in order the better to help in the defence of his country considers it an honour to do so, and thereby set an example to others in a position to do likewise.

All this must be realised in order thoroughly to grasp the spirit of the Swiss military system. It will explain the seriousness with which each man responds to the call of law and conforms to the requirements of military discipline. It will explain why the number of candidates for the position of an officer is always in excess of what is necessary, so that only the best

need be selected. It will explain why there are so many societies composed of officers, of non-commissioned officers, of artillery-men, of pontoniers, of ambulance-men, and other special categories of soldiers, whose members all meet periodically of their own free will and arrange for training calculated to keep them fit and in thoroughly good form and generally to perfect their knowledge, over and above what they do when regularly called up for service. It will explain also the zeal with which youths voluntarily take part in the preparatory training intended to fit them for their military service, and the enthusiasm with which soldiers and civilians alike are constantly practising to prevent their good marksmanship from deteriorating—to such an extent, indeed, that a nation numbering no more than three and a half millions uses on an average each year more than thirty million cartridges for target shooting practice. Finally, it will explain why, when the Government, owing to the increasingly scientific nature of warfare, is obliged to suggest that the sacrifices already entailed on the people should be still further

augmented, the electors themselves should have assented thereto by voting "Yes" at a referendum.

The explanation of all this, indeed, is to be found in the initial principle which presided over the birth of the Swiss Confederation and has maintained it in existence among the nations, small as it is, during six centuries of history—the principle of democratic equality which, in face of danger from without, requires the defence of all by all.

Now, if traditions are of such importance in Swiss military institutions, it may be questioned whether it is possible to make them articles of export, and hold them up as a pattern for other lands. As to this opinions may differ. It goes without saying that it can never be otherwise than a mistake slavishly to copy any military system whatever. The highly aristocratic army of the German Empire has proved thoroughly well suited to the system of government in that country—a system still in many respects feudal. The present war has shown that the German Army was in reality an instrument of that ancient feudal warfare, which was charac-

terised not by colonial war but by plundering neighbouring countries. This was the sense in which it was understood throughout the middle ages by those lords of the soil whose lineal descendants are to-day the *Junker*. The German Army has, therefore, proved very suitable for Germany, although it would doubtless have been much less so for France or England, because its spirit and its internal strength would have placed it, so to speak, outside the nation. Consequently in case of a defeat it would have been immediately deprived of the support of that nation.

At present, owing to the growth of industrialism, the democratic spirit has gained ground, even in countries whose government has most faithfully adhered to the monarchical principle. It is, therefore, natural that they should be turning their thoughts towards the question of organising their national defence, and looking for points of comparison in countries whose institutions are imbued with a democratic spirit. How much and how far any system may be modified in practical application will depend on the object which a Government

has in adopting it—in other words, on the ends which the State in question has in view.

It is obvious that, from the military standpoint, it is useless to seek to compare a small nation such as the Swiss, whose utmost military ambition ought to be self-defence within its own borders or close to its frontiers against the unjust aggressions of some neighbour, with great nations such as the British or American nations, which not only are determined not to allow their homelands to be attacked, but must assume special obligations and responsibilities from the very fact of their having so many and such important interests abroad, in distant parts of the world.

As to historical traditions, they must become fixed according as circumstances give rise to them, and they cannot become traditions until this occurs. They are the result of these circumstances, and similar traditions cannot arise everywhere simultaneously. The traditions of the Swiss militia have their roots in the events of the thirteenth century. Should present circumstances induce the United Kingdom and the

United States to organise their defensive forces on the model of the Swiss militia army, those circumstances would give rise to a tradition which would be handed down to posterity, and would continue to consolidate British and American militia forces in the course of centuries to come.

A CITIZENS' ARMY

THE SWISS SYSTEM

CHAPTER I

UNIVERSAL MILITARY SERVICE

THERE is no reason whatsoever to think that the present war will be followed by disarmament, either in the case of great or small Powers. There is, indeed, far more ground for believing that it will be followed by a period of increased armaments, the more so as one great Power, Great Britain, and probably another, the United States, which have hitherto refrained from having large national armies, will be obliged to resort to some system of universal military service. Moreover, no German of authority or influence seems to contemplate for a moment even the possibility of disarmament after the war. On the contrary, they all assume, as a foregone conclusion, that armaments must continue, and in this they are borne out by the fact that the Budget

Committee of the Bavarian Chamber, at its meeting of February 4th, 1916, dealt with preliminary military training in Germany. The Bavarian Minister of War, after insisting on the necessity for perfecting the Bavarian Army after the war, and diminishing the number of those unfit for service, stated that the individual training of each German soldier must be completed and improved, particularly from the standpoint of the experience recently acquired in trench warfare. For this purpose, he continued, it was necessary to institute preliminary military training, to which boys would be liable from the age of sixteen until their period of training in barracks began. "The industrial and agricultural population," he added, "must endure this sacrifice for the sake of the salvation of the country;" and he concluded by announcing the introduction within a short time of a bill setting forth the conditions of preliminary military instruction for the youth of the entire German Empire.

Not only did such authors as von Bernhardi, when writing in anticipation of a European war, never dream that it would

bring about even partial disarmament, at any rate not in the case of Germany, but, so far as I know, not a single German book of importance which has appeared since the war contains any allusion to decrease of armaments. Dr. Friedrich Naumann, for instance, in his "*Mitteleuropa*" ("Central Europe"), a book which is now almost a household word in Germany and Austria, obviously never even contemplates the possibility of Germany disarming after the war. What he does contemplate, however, is the boundaries of every European country being marked out by a series of fortified trenches, two or three deep at least, so that it will no longer be possible to go from one land to another except over a bridge of some description. Furthermore, whenever a German political economist or statesman estimates the cost of the work of general rehabilitation and setting matters in order—that transition period after the war which is evidently dreaded by Germans—the expenses of putting Army and Navy to rights and bringing both up to or beyond their former strength, always figure for very large, albeit generally indefinite, amounts.

If Germany does not intend to disarm after this war, it is perfectly plain that we cannot afford to do so. The obligation, indeed, which rests upon England to have a strong army is greater than that incumbent on Germany because of England's vast responsibilities to her Dominions overseas. What ought to strengthen Great Britain in her determination to shoulder her new unavoidable military burdens is the knowledge that in every effort she will be admirably seconded by the entire Empire, from its smallest to its greatest, from its weakest to its strongest component part. It has been the Mother Country which has been behind in the realisation of her responsibilities, and not the daughter States; and should England, under pressure from that short-sighted insularity which still prevails in certain classes of her people, show signs of backsliding after the war and attempting to shirk her military obligations, it will then be for the daughter States to intervene. They have already more than earned the right to do so.

I think, therefore, that I am now beyond the pale of doubt when I assert that after

this war England must adopt some form of military service and universal service, and that the measures which were taken at the beginning of 1916 cannot be merely temporary. To anyone who has, as I have done, watched the war from the outside, as it were, from the heart of Europe, Switzerland, there cannot be the slightest question about this necessity for some comprehensive and permanent system of military service in England. No intelligent neutral observer of England, no French-Swiss, for example, than whom no people in Europe are better disposed towards England, has the faintest doubt as to the imperative necessity of universal military service for Great Britain. Germany and Austria scoff and have always scoffed at the thought of the introduction of any such measure into England, but the best proof of the importance which they attach to her action in this respect is the rapt attention with which they have followed every fluctuation of the universal service movement in Great Britain, and the delight with which they have pounced upon any speech, any indication, which could possibly be interpreted as unfavourable to its

introduction. In the German and Austrian Press very little has appeared about the military assistance rendered to the Mother Country in this war by the Overseas Dominions; and at the outset of hostilities I verily believe there were Germans ill-informed enough to imagine that the Dominions would take advantage of the war to cut the Imperial tie asunder. That the German or Austrian Governments were so grossly ignorant is scarcely credible, however, and the very fact that the Press of both countries under the severest censorship should have minimised all that the Dominions have done, and said an ill word for them whenever possible, proves that they know the meaning of England's Empire. They know, too, that, should Great Britain strengthen her military position, it will be the signal for the British Overseas Dominions to exert themselves to strengthen theirs; that the awakening of the Mother Country will lend renewed zest to the efforts of the younger nations. In short, once the system of national service is adopted in England, even the Germans know that there need be no fear about the seconding action

of the British Empire Overseas. Whether the system in force in England would necessarily be the best for the Dominions is a question which can only be settled by those exactly knowing local conditions. That there must also be some wider system, co-ordinating the efforts of Great Britain and the Dominions is evident, but with this question I do not propose to deal, it being beyond the scope of my book.

While wishing as far as possible to avoid all controversial statements, it nevertheless seems to me, as it must do to any British subject regarding England from an outside standpoint and not resident there, scarcely arguable that this war would never have been begun had England possessed a strong army, mobilisable within a few days, at most a week. Had we listened to Lord Roberts, and adopted some system of national military service, as he so earnestly desired, England would have had at her command 7,000,000 trained soldiers, and not merely trained but equipped with uniforms, rifles, artillery, and the necessary ammunition, perhaps even with airships. Now, it is absolutely certain that Germany, before irrupting into Belgium,

would then have speedily discovered that "Necessity *did* know some law," and that law would probably have enjoined upon her General Staff to make sure beyond all possibility of doubt, of the attitude which England would adopt in case of a European war. It is safe to say, and the Germans themselves admit this, that Germany would never have risked a war with England had we had a large, strong army immediately ready to take the field.

As for Belgium, had she possessed a system of military service on the lines of that in force in Switzerland, it is also safe to say that, although she could not have indefinitely stemmed the tide of the German advance, nevertheless she could have held it up for a considerable time, inflicting heavy losses on the German troops, and meanwhile reinforcements could have arrived from France and England. The pre-war population of Belgium was estimated at 7,000,000, which, arguing from the analogy of Switzerland, means that she should have been able, at a pinch, to put 1,000,000 trained men into the field. Why have the Swiss been spared from invasion in this

war, when certain projecting portions of their territory are very much in the way of the belligerents? Why has no army attempted to break through these promontories of land which impeded their advance and interfered with their military operations? Simply because the Swiss Army, or part of it, is always mobilised, and its military value is well known to all the belligerents, none of whom are anxious to encounter the resistance of an army of 500,000 trained soldiers, all good marksmen. Five hundred thousand is not an excessive estimate of the number of men whom Switzerland could put into the field should she think fit to do so.

Again, had we possessed trained, experienced soldiers with experienced officers, our losses would never have been so heavy. They would, in fact, have been reduced by I fear to say how great a percentage. As to the necessity for having men ready trained to send into the field, I am borne out, albeit unintentionally, by Oberst Sprecher von Bernegg, the present head of the Swiss General Staff, in an address which he delivered in December,

1913, to the Officers' Society. After referring to the universality of the obligation to serve in war, an obligation binding upon the fit and the unfit alike, Oberst Sprecher von Bernegg remarked that even if all citizens be called out to serve (a *levée en masse*), the anticipated results will not be secured unless the men themselves be properly trained and prepared. "It is," he said, "unjust both to the country and to the individual man if the troops sent to the front be not adequately trained."

Those who positively insulted Lord Roberts when he pleaded for the introduction of national military service into England, foreseeing as he did the possibility of a vast European conflict, cannot even now realise to what an extent they are responsible for the loss of British lives in this war, and even for the war itself. Their argument is that England's introduction of universal service would have been the signal for Germany finding a pretext for war; but those acquainted with her condition and recent history know that this prediction would not have been realised. Germany was not then ready for war. I



SWISS COMMANDERS WITH THE KAISER. SWISS MANŒUVRES,
1912.

The General of the Swiss Army (General Wille, centre) and
Colonel Sprecher von Bernegg, head of the General Staff
(on the left).



THE MILITARY ATTACHÉS AT THE MANŒUVRES.

have the clearest possible recollection of a German professor, who is well known in English University circles, and whose mother was an Englishwoman, saying to me long before the war: "Why don't people in England listen to Lord Roberts, because he is right. The result of not doing so will be that a calamity will come upon the world."

Before long England will be faced with the necessity for the choice of an army system, and one of the chief objects of my writing this brief volume is to show that it is possible to have an army without the accompaniment of militarism which every liberty-loving Briton dreads. It is for this reason that I am describing in detail the Swiss Army system, because it fulfils this condition, and on the whole perhaps is more admirable than any other. Moreover, in its broad general conception it is exceedingly simple, being based on the principle that it should be the pride and duty of every citizen to help in the defence of his country. Naturally, it is impossible to transfer an army system then and there from one country to another, and in describing in

detail the working of the Swiss system and the obligations which it entails, I am not imagining the possibility of its introduction in an unmodified form into Great Britain. Nevertheless, the main principles might surely be adopted, in particular that to which I have just referred—the universality of the obligation to serve, which is accepted as a duty binding on every man who wishes to be considered an honourable citizen; and the reduction of the period in barracks to a minimum by long preliminary training of boys, by frequent rifle-shooting practice throughout the period of liability to service, and also by annual manœuvres. What tends to keep the military spirit—militarism—within due bounds is the fact that every man is primarily a citizen and only secondarily a soldier.

The Swiss Army is mainly defensive, and what England needs is an army which would probably be also mainly for defence, although it must be so trained as to be capable of attacking, if need were. The great point I wish to make, however, is that the obligation to take part in the defence of the realm or the empire ought to be regarded in the

light rather of a privilege than in that of a burdensome duty. In Switzerland he who will not serve in the army shall not vote—shall not, that is to say, enjoy the rights and privileges of a citizen. So should it be in England.

CHAPTER II

THE ORIGIN OF THE SWISS ARMY

UNIVERSAL service has always been the root principle of the Swiss military system, probably because the confederates were few and weak and surrounded by neighbours much more numerous and much more powerful than themselves. Consequently there seemed to be, and there was, no other way for them to assert and maintain their independent existence except by being in a position to call upon every able-bodied man to defend his country, and by every able-bodied man being qualified so to defend it. Long before the historic compact known as the Everlasting League, by which the three original Swiss Cantons, Uri, Schwyz, and Unterwalden, formed a defensive alliance in 1291, their inhabitants had been convinced of the paramount importance of being ever ready to take up

arms and of every man being a well-trained, capable soldier. At that time, moreover, many of the men of the three original Swiss Cantons hired themselves out to warlike neighbouring potentates, thus acquiring much valuable experience of warfare.

The original founders of the Swiss Confederation meant very seriously with their compulsory military service. Whoever could not serve in the army was obliged to pay a war tax, from which not even nuns or widows were exempt. Whoever shirked his military service, which began at the age of fifteen, was immediately declared "devoid of honour and perjured," and his house vowed to destruction. Should a man be unable to obey the call to take part in a warlike expedition, owing to some family reason or illness, he was obliged to send a capable substitute at his own expense.

The first definite attempt to consign the Swiss military regulations to writing is to be found in the *Sempacherbrief* of 1393, the precepts contained therein being based on the experiences gained in the Battle of Sempach in 1386, and the wars which led up thereto. What was chiefly inculcated

was the necessity of stern discipline and self-control during battle; while looting, forsaking the flag before victory was assured, and offences against churches or defenceless women were all severely put down. Considering what brutal excesses then accompanied warfare, these prohibitions must be regarded as somewhat in advance of the age in which the Swiss Confederates lived. Later on, in 1521, drinking and swearing were forbidden, also sleeping when on watch, and creating an "uproar."

The Government insisted that men liable for military service should themselves procure their arms and equipment, although it was accumulating supplies of both for use in case of emergency. The responsibility for learning the proper use of his weapons was also left to the individual soldier, which could be done in view of the keen interest which each man took in being capable of bearing arms. Even in these early days, the sixteenth century, the Swiss attached the highest importance to the military training of boys, as well as to marksmanship, shooting associations having existed as far back as the fourteenth cen-

tury, when the first guns are mentioned. The equipment of the early Swiss Army was what was usual in the case of all armies of the period, the most used and most dreaded weapons having been the halbard, and also a spear, 18 feet long.

From early times the Swiss Confederates did their utmost to procure exact information as to their enemies' movements, and in general their intelligence service gave good results. At Morgarten (1315), at Sempach, and on other occasions when they were in danger, they contrived to learn precisely what the enemy intended to do.

At Morgarten, as all Swiss historians agree, the Confederates, with their army of 1,300, were exactly informed as to the intentions of the Austrians, numbering, it is said, 9,000, under Duke Leopold of Austria. This, one of the most famous battles in Swiss history, the six hundredth anniversary of which was celebrated throughout Switzerland on November 14th, 1915, is sometimes described as having been fought by a mere handful of peasants, unversed in the art of warfare, against a trained army. This, however, is far from being the case. The Con-



federate soldiers were not untrained, and a large number of them had had considerable experience of warfare fought on what were then the most modern principles, owing to their having served in various European armies, hiring themselves out for the purpose. What was known of military tactics and strategy in the fourteenth century, they certainly knew; while they were skilled in the use of the weapons of those days. The Austrians, it is true, made light of them before the attack, considering them as a pack of bumpkins. Bumpkins they possibly were, but they had nevertheless sharp wits enough to have ascertained the plans of their enemies precisely as a modern army endeavours to do. Furthermore, they profited to the utmost extent by the natural advantages afforded them owing to the configuration of the ground, putting obstacles in their enemies' way, precisely, again, as a modern army endeavours to do. They took cover on the heights, and rained down tree-trunks and rocks on their opponents, who were wholly unable to retaliate, the more so as the Confederate soldiers were invisible. Every Swiss military historian,

however, is in a position to record numerous instances in which the Swiss of bygone times had organised something not at all unlike a modern secret service system for procuring news about their enemies' movements and handing on such news to friendly-disposed neighbouring towns.

In very early days also the Confederates cared for the wounded, although only for their own wounded, since they killed those of their enemies. Even in this respect, however, they were probably in advance of their times, for when the city of Nürnberg, in 1449, wanted to engage a thousand Swiss mercenaries, the Confederates expressly stipulated that in case any of them were wounded in battle, their injuries must be dressed and properly attended to. Even the families and dependents of soldiers fallen in battle were cared for by the authorities, and cases actually occurred of compensation for injuries received in battle. For instance, the *Landvogt* (Governor or Bailiff) of Willisau, received rather more than Frs. 300 as compensation for a leg which had been shot away.

After 1515 the Swiss Army ceases to be

aggressive and its use becomes confined to national defence only. For a time its history is not specially interesting, and the training of the soldiers was very inadequate, and probably more neglected than at any other period. The first printed drill regulations were published in 1652 in Lucerne, and officers and subalterns on their return from service in foreign armies occasionally spent some time training men capable of bearing arms. On March 18th, 1668, at Baden, the Confederates concluded the "*Eidgenössische Defensionale*," or Federal Defensive Alliance for the general protection of the country and of its liberties, won by ancestors. At this time the Swiss Army numbered only about 40,000 infantry, 1,200 cavalry, and 48 canon. Shortly afterwards this Defensive Alliance was completed by the establishment of a War Fund or War Chest, on the basis of a fixed contribution per every two soldiers. The main object of the Swiss Army was even then defined as the protection of the country's neutrality, the first declaration of Swiss neutrality having been issued by the Confederates in 1507, and the last in August, 1914.

Although the system of a Federal Defensive Alliance was certainly not perfect, nevertheless its mere existence frequently prevented foreign troops from venturing to march through Swiss territory. In the eighteenth century the great drawback to the progress of the Swiss system of national defence was the indifference of certain reactionary Cantons. Each Canton could do practically what it pleased for national defence. Consequently those which realised their responsibilities, for instance, the Cantons of Berne, Zürich, and Lucerne, were constantly endeavouring to effect some military improvements, while those which had no proper sense of their duty would not even trouble to mobilise. Moreover, the prevalent system of foreign mercenaries continually deprived the country of many of her best troops.


After the battle of Villmergen (1712), the Canton of Berne—for Swiss history is still very local—appointed a Committee whose business it was to ensure the army benefitting by the experience gained in recent wars. From 1744, for about 16 years, the War Commission discussed and decided upon

the measures necessary to improve the military system, and on March 21st, 1782, we find all the male Swiss of the Canton of Berne, from their sixteenth to their sixtieth years, 63,697 in number, considered as fit for bearing arms, but only 27,218 fit for active service in the field. Now, it is remarkable that in the first days of February, 1916, the Swiss Government issued orders that all male Swiss, of whatever Canton, not merely Canton Berne, from their sixteenth to their sixtieth years, who are not liable for military service but who have at any time undergone military training with a rifle or carbine, or who have ever been active members of a rifle-shooting club, or have otherwise become acquainted with the use of a rifle, carbine, or short rifle, must personally present themselves and give an account of their capabilities as marksmen. Swiss who are more than sixty years of age, and who are able to shoot, may also present themselves, although they are not obliged to do so.

In the eighteenth century the Swiss Army introduced certain reforms, such as putting the soldiers in uniform, the general use of


the musket, and the storing up of large quantities of military material and even provisions. Nevertheless, the army was at a low ebb, perhaps at its lowest ebb. Bonaparte, for instance, held it in very slight esteem. The higher officers seem to have become slack and indifferent, and although there was a movement on foot for generally improving the army system, nevertheless it had not had time to take effect before Switzerland was involved in the Napoleonic Wars of 1798-1801; and the country endured untold misery owing to its having been unprepared and having neglected its means of defence. Indeed, the then French Minister in Switzerland wrote to his Government in Paris, referring to the sufferings of the Swiss people at this time:—"It is scarcely possible to conceive what a degree of wretchedness prevails."

At any rate, according to Oberst Feldmann (to whose Introduction to "*Schweizer Hekreskunde*," 2nd ed., 1916. Schulthess & Co., Zürich, I am indebted for many of the facts in this chapter), the Canton of Berne alone had to suffer losses in money and kind amounting in eight weeks, in the early part



of 1798, to at least 24,000,000 francs, or nearly £1,000,000, which, the population being then only about 150,000 souls, works out at 160 francs per head. The people were called upon to supply the French Government and Army not only with cash, but with rations of bread, meat, wine, brandy, salt, candles, and fodder, to say nothing of cannon, rifles, and carbines. The other cantons also suffered heavily from requisitions or looting, after which the peasants declared that they could not sow the spring crops for lack of seed corn and draught horses or oxen. During the years of the Napoleonic Wars, Switzerland had to suffer the presence of foreign troops—Austrians, Russians, and French—who marched through her territory, and the total amount of material damage inflicted upon her between the years 1798 and 1815 is estimated at £60,000,000 sterling (Frs. 1,500,000,000); which sum, however, takes no account of the loss caused by epidemic diseases brought in by foreign troops nor of the injuries to which the inhabitants were subjected owing to the brutality of the invaders.

After some years of what may be called

“feeling” after a satisfactory army system, the Swiss Confederates in 1817, two years after the definite coming into existence of the country as we know it and the ratification of its constitution by the pact of 1815, resolved upon an “*Allgemeine Militärreglement für die schweizerische Eidgenossenschaft*” (“General Army Regulations for the Swiss Confederation”), which is really the basis of the present army system. All male citizens capable of bearing arms were distributed into the first Federal Line, the Federal Reserve, and the *Landwehr*, or what is now called the Second Line. These 1817 regulations remained in existence until 1850, without substantial alteration. 

Since 1850 the history of the Swiss Army has been one of continued effort and progress. In 1897, for instance, a balloon company was added to it, and in 1898 each of the four cavalry brigades received a mounted maxim gun company, with eight guns. In 1907 a new military organisation was accepted by referendum, 74 per cent. of the qualified voters having voted. This new law introduced very far-reaching changes, including a prolongation of the

time of service. Seven years later the speed and smoothness with which general mobilisation was accomplished, in the first days of August, 1914, was to prove the excellence of the working of the new and improved Swiss Army system.



SOLDIERS HELPING WITH THE HARVEST.

After mobilisation, 1914.

CHAPTER III

THE SWISS MILITARY SYSTEM TO-DAY

WHATEVER the Swiss may or may not have done, they have at least solved the problem of the creation of a defensive army, and, moreover, have done so without becoming in the process converted into a State in which militarism is rampant. Long residence in Switzerland—that is, among the people and speaking their language—has convinced me that there is no ground for the assumption that compulsory and universal military training must necessarily beget militarism. The obligations, first, to qualify to serve in the army, and, secondly, actually to serve in it are looked upon by the Swiss as duties which no self-respecting citizen would wish to neglect or avoid if he could; something like the obligation to appear decently clad and washed.

EXEMPTIONS

As to exemptions from military service in Switzerland, they are virtually none, save

for the physically unfit or the mentally deficient. The members of the Federal Council, corresponding to the Cabinet, and the heads and staffs of public hospitals, with a few other absolutely indispensable officials, need not be called upon to serve in the army; nevertheless they have of course all, unless physically unfit, undergone their military training. Even clergy must pass a recruit's course, although, except army chaplains, they are exempt from service. A criminal who has been deprived of civic rights, and anyone whose conduct while undergoing training has been unsatisfactory, are also not allowed to serve in the Swiss Army, from which it is clear that service is not considered as a burden but rather as a privilege whereof no self-respecting man would willingly be deprived. Even the physically unfit Swiss citizen and the few exempted for any reason from serving in the first or second line were obliged up to 1914 to pay an annual tax of frs. 6 (at ordinary times), and an extra tax as well, which was proportioned to their property or income.

This military tax, which was first intro-

duced in 1878, was doubled in 1914, owing to the exceptional situation of prolonged armed neutrality in which Switzerland was placed by the European war.

MILITARY OBLIGATIONS

The military obligations incumbent upon every Swiss citizen are not merely to render personal service during the period of instruction, or, as at present, when the regiment to which he belongs is sent to the frontier or otherwise employed, but also to maintain his rifle, uniform, and other equipment in perfect order, as well as to attend the annual rifle-shooting practice in rifle clubs and the periodical inspections of equipment. In the case of a cavalryman there is the additional obligation of feeding and keeping a horse.

Colonel Egli, in his authoritative book on the Swiss Army System (p. 51, 1916 ed.), referring to the extent of the duties incumbent upon a Swiss soldier, says:—

“These obligations go much farther than in other countries. Nowhere else is it required of the soldier that, when not on

active service, he should keep his arms, etc., in order, or that he must do rifle-shooting when not on active service. In France a man liable for military service can give up his rank in the army and end his period of service as an ordinary private," which in Switzerland it is specifically forbidden to do.

PAY OF SWISS OFFICERS AND SOLDIERS

So long as the Swiss soldier is serving in the army, he can claim his pay, rations, and quarters. That the pay is not extravagant will be seen from the following table.

Commander-in-Chief (General, only when the Swiss Army is mobilised	Active Service. Francs	Training Service. Francs
	50 (about £2)	17
Head of the General Staff	40	17
Head of the Army Commis- sariat	25	17
Commandant of an army corps	35	17
Aide-de-Camp or Colonel of Division	30	17
Colonel	20	17
Military Judge Advocate	20	16
Lieutenant-Colonel	15	13
„ „ Grand Judge	15	12

	Active Service. Francs	Training Service. Francs
Major	12	11
„ Grand Judge	12	10
Captain, mounted	10	9
„ unmounted	10	8
First Lieutenant, mounted	8	7
„ „ unmounted	8	6
Lieutenant, mounted	7	6
„ unmounted	7	5
Staff Secretary (Subaltern Adjutant)	6	4
Subaltern Adjutant	3	3
Colour-Sergeant	2.50	2.50
Quartermaster	2	2
Sergeant-Major, mounted	2	2
„ „ unmounted	1.50	1.50
Corporal, mounted	1.50	1.50
„ unmounted	1	1
Lance-Corporal, mounted	1.20	1.20
„ „ unmounted90	.90
Ambulance Lance - Corporal, Guide, Dragoon, Convoy Soldier (Waggoner)	1	1
Other Soldiers80	.80
Recruits	—	.50

Besides which officers and men are alike each entitled to one ration or a food allowance of Fr. 1 daily. During active service

in 1914-15—that is, since mobilisation—this allowance has been increased to Fr. 1.20 daily per man. The pay of subalterns and inferior officers generally is likely shortly to be raised.

WHAT IS REQUIRED OF A SWISS RECRUIT

Every Swiss is liable for military service during a period of twenty-nine years, beginning with the year in which he reaches the age of twenty. Before the war twenty-nine years was also the period of military service for which every German soldier was liable, which is one year longer than the period of service in France and nine years longer than that in Italy.

The three main divisions of the Swiss Army, from the point of view of age and efficiency, are the first line (*Auszug*), from the twentieth till the close of the thirty-second year (or the thirtieth year in the case of cavalry); the second reserve or second line (*Landwehr*), from the thirty-third (or thirty-first in the case of cavalry) year to the end of the fortieth; and the

Landsturm, or last line, from the forty-first year to the end of the forty-eighth. An important point is that promotion in the Swiss Army is always from the ranks, and officers of all units are liable for service in the *Landsturm* until the end of their fifty-second year. In case of war or national emergency the Government can call out youths of eighteen and nineteen. Moreover, men in the second line may be obliged to serve in the first line, or men of the last line in the second line.

Each recruit is examined thrice—once to test his educational acquirements, once to test his physical strength and agility, and once, medically, to ascertain whether he has the necessary physical and mental qualities in general. The minimum standard of height is for infantry and the medical corps 5 ft. $1\frac{1}{2}$ in., for cavalry, mountain machine-gun companies, transport and supply troops 5 ft. $2\frac{1}{2}$ in., for Engineers 5 ft. 3 in., for gunners of field or fortress artillery 5 ft. $3\frac{1}{8}$ in., for heavy artillery gunners 5 ft. 5 in., for orderlies 5 ft. $0\frac{3}{8}$ in.. and for cyclists 5 ft. $0\frac{1}{8}$ in.

PREPARATORY MILITARY TRAINING IN
SWITZERLAND

So short a time being allowed for training recruits in Switzerland, great stress is laid upon preparatory military training, which includes compulsory gymnastics for all schoolboys, and voluntary gymnastics and musketry courses for boys between the time of their leaving school and that of their liability for military service—that is, for about five years in general. All boys leaving school, moreover, must attend gymnastic classes under some qualified instructor for at least two hours weekly.

Firstly, compulsory gymnastic training for schoolboys usually begins at the age of about ten, when the boy has been three or four years at school. The age varies, however, according to the regulations in the different Cantons, but throughout the country compulsory gymnastic training does not cease until the time comes for leaving school, the number of hours devoted to it weekly being fairly uniform, between two and three.

Secondly, a physically strong Swiss school-boy may join a cadet corps, and frequently does so. Formerly this was possible only



INFANTRY (IN NEW GREY-GREEN
UNIFORM).



CAVALRY SOLDIER.



INFANTRY CADET.

for the sons of parents comparatively well off, because of the somewhat heavy outlay for uniform, rifle, and other equipment. Now, however, owing to support both from the governments of the various Cantons and from public-spirited citizens, matters are so constituted that the sons of poor parents can also join a cadet corps. Cadet corps include artillery, drummers and pipers, and even bands.

The gymnastic clubs (*Turnvereine*), which are to be found all over Switzerland, are increasingly made to serve the purpose of preliminary military training. Without being militarised, they so direct their efforts as to aim at making young men more enduring and more capable of long marches. Over all the gymnastic clubs in Switzerland is the Swiss Gymnasts Association (*Turnerverband*). Directly under it are the Cantonal clubs, under them the district clubs, and finally come the village clubs—a network of organisation. A member of a gymnasts' club who has performed a certain number of good marches, reckoned by kilometres, can win a diploma; while for performances still more credible oak

wreaths are awarded, and for yet higher distinction laurel wreaths.

Membership of cadet corps, gymnastic associations or other organisations destined to serve the purpose of preliminary military training is voluntary, no compulsion being exercised on any boy or youth to join. Nevertheless, the custom of undergoing preliminary training before the statutory age of military service is reached is very general, and is becoming more and more so, and this for an excellent reason.

In a school for recruits no distinction is made between those who have received some preliminary training and those who are perfectly "raw." Consequently the latter are at very great disadvantage, and often find they have a hard time to pass through and difficulty in keeping up with the rest. It is true that there is a movement on foot in certain quarters for making preliminary military training in Switzerland compulsory, and though this has not yet been successful, it probably will be so one day. Out of the 30,818 young Swiss who became liable for military service in 1912, 91 per cent. had passed gymnastic tests.



CADETS UNDERGOING FIELD TRAINING.



CADETS DRUMMERS' CORPS.

LENGTH OF TIME IN BARRACKS

The consequence of so much preliminary training and after-practice is that the total number of days' training for Swiss infantry and Engineers is only 153, including repetition courses (or the training which an already trained soldier in the first and second lines has to undergo with his unit). For cavalry it is 178 days, and for artillery 184. A recruit's course, however, lasts only 65 days for infantry, or just over two months; 90 days for cavalry, and 75 days for artillery and fortress troops.

Everyone serving in the Swiss Army is insured by the Government against sickness or accident incurred in or through his service. Even youths undergoing non-compulsory preliminary training are allowed to benefit by State insurance against accidents occurring during this training.

By the Swiss system, as I cannot too often insist, a man is only secondarily a soldier, and primarily a labourer, artisan, professional man, manufacturer, or whatever else his calling may be. The Swiss system, however, is based on certain essential conditions, without which it would soon

cease to be effective. The training must be begun during boyhood, for which we in England have already an excellent basis in the Boy Scouts organisation; and it must be continued, after the very brief time spent in barracks or camp, by annual attendance at manœuvres and by a certain amount of compulsory rifle-shooting practice. Without the notions acquired in boyhood, and without the annual rifle practice after military training proper is over, a long period would have to be passed in barracks or camp, and the dreaded militarism would be engendered.

FORMATION OF THE SWISS ARMY

The Swiss Army, as reorganised by the new law which came into force in 1912, consists of six army divisions, with fortress garrisons and army troops, besides which there are four mountain brigades, composed of infantry, artillery, machine guns, and medical and supply units. These mountain brigades are specially equipped and trained for mountain warfare, and attached to divisions 1, 3, 5, and 6.

In 1911 the total number of soldiers of all classes in the Swiss Army was 486,851, since which year no figures have been published.

COST OF SWISS ARMY

The cost of the Swiss Army per head of population amounted in 1914 to Frs. 11.90, the highest figure ever reached. That the increase, however, has not been very rapid is proved by the fact that in 1906 it was already Frs. 9.25. The military expenditure of Switzerland in 1914, the last year for which figures are available, attained the sum of Frs. 36,807,513 (£1,472,300), which, however, takes no account of the cost of mobilisation. Expressed in a percentage, it was 17.89 per cent. of the country's total expenditure for 1914. The year in which Swiss military expenditure reached its absolute maximum was 1913, when it amounted to Frs. 45,840,619 (£1,833,620) or 21.03 per cent. of the country's total expenditure in that year. Probably the Swiss Army is the cheapest in the world, while the most expensive would seem to be

that of the United States, the cost of each soldier in 1914 having been \$841.95. The chief reasons for the expensiveness of the United States Army are, according to Major-General Hugh L. Scott, of the United States, Chief of the Staff, the much higher wages and much higher cost of living in the United States; the necessity for going into the labour market and competing with other employers of labour to secure soldiers; the railways not being State-owned, and consequently the transport of troops and material having to be paid for at ordinary rates; the high cost of all Army requisites; and, finally, being obliged by law constantly to be moving officers and to change overseas garrisons every two years.

AN EXAMPLE OF ORGANISATION

There can be no possible doubt that the gain to the ordinary Swiss citizen from fulfilling the obligations thus imposed upon him is incomparably greater than any loss entailed owing to his being withdrawn for a time from his usual avocations or owing to curtailment of individual freedom.

The best possible test of the system was the extreme rapidity and smoothness with which general mobilisation was effected in August, 1914. The mobilisation placards were out on Saturday afternoon, August 1st, and on the following Wednesday afternoon officers and men were sworn in, the frontiers being already occupied. Of course, the convenience of civilians had to give way to military requirements, but there was little unnecessary disturbance and no drunkenness or disorderliness on the part of the soldiers.

As to the excellence of the moral effect which the shouldering of certain definite obligations would produce upon British youth and manhood, it is inconceivable how anyone can be found to deny this. Whenever I have been to England and visited either London or any of the great industrial centres such as Birmingham, Manchester, Sheffield, Liverpool, or Glasgow, I have been struck with the masses of men who would be in every respect better for being compelled to assume certain duties and obligations of citizens. Compulsory military service should never

be regarded in the light of an odious form of conscription or an unwarrantable encroachment on personal liberty, but as a patriotic duty which it is a disgrace not to fulfil, which every self-respecting citizen is proud to perform and would be ashamed of not performing. Against a long period in barracks I am aware that much may be urged, but against a short period in barracks with a long period during which certain claims are made upon a youth's or a man's time and energies there is surely nothing to object. The qualities engendered or fostered thereby are wholly and solely good.

CHAPTER IV

RIFLE SHOOTING IN SWITZERLAND

SWISS shooting associations can be proved to have existed as long ago as the fourteenth century, and it may well be that they are of even older date. Six centuries ago it was already customary for the best marksmen in one place to invite those of another locality to friendly shooting contests. Colonel Feldmann, for instance,* mentions letters written by the boy shooters and crossbow shooters of Uri inviting their comrades of Lucerne to come and compete with them in crossbow shooting, an invitation which was accepted.

Rifle shooting in Switzerland may, therefore, be considered as a national sport, perhaps, indeed, the national sport, in which however, as I shall show, it is virtually although not actually, binding on everyone

* "Schweizer Heereskunde," p. 7 of Introduction to 1916 edition. Schulthess & Co., Zürich.

to take part. Volunteer rifle shooting associations exist in every canton, in every hamlet it might almost be said, to the number of, in 1913, 4,058, with a total membership of 236,794. The entire population of Switzerland, 1911 census, being only 3,781,430, of whom in 1910 552,011 were foreigners, it will be seen what a very large proportion of the able-bodied male Swiss population must belong to these rifle associations. The country is, in fact, a veritable network of rifle shooting organisations, junior and adult. There is not only the *Schweizerischer Schützenverein*, or Swiss Rifle Shooting Association, with 123,294 members at the end of 1915, but there are all the different *Cantonal* Rifle Shooting Associations and Companies, as well as the associations founded in the various cities, towns, and villages. Anyone walking about the country districts of Switzerland, especially in spring or summer, whether in the neighbourhood of a large town or in some remote part of the land, especially on a Sunday or a Saturday afternoon, cannot fail to notice the constant noise of rifle firing going on, and may be



A VILLAGE RIFLE-SHOOTING TEAM.

The Team belongs to Kandersteg, a village with about 600 inhabitants.

THE
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MUSEUM OF
NATURAL HISTORY

assured that it is the members of some Rifle Shooting Association practising in order to be able to pass their compulsory or voluntary tests.

It is held by Swiss officers that the consciousness of being able to aim well and hit with certainty inspires a soldier with that confidence which is so large an element in victorious fighting; and this, besides the traditional good marksmanship of the Swiss is doubtless the reason for so considerable a portion of the soldier's brief period of training being devoted to rifle shooting practice alone.

As I have said, no Swiss is positively compelled to join a Rifle Shooting Association. What he is compelled to do, however, is to pass certain tests of marksmanship every year for a number of years in succession, the Government and the military authorities alike attaching great importance to skill in handling a rifle and in aiming. Now, as the Swiss soldier finds that he trains for and passes his tests with far less expense and far less trouble to himself if he is a member of a volunteer rifle association than if he is not, he usually considers it decidedly to

his interests to join one. These volunteer associations, in short, are mainly military in object, and not sporting, the sporting element in them being but a very secondary consideration, and strictly subordinated to the military. Consequently shooting is mostly with the army regulation rifle, a magazine rifle with a safety catch and a calibre of 7·5 millimetres (·2955 of an inch). The magazine of an infantry soldier's rifle will hold five or six cartridges; that of a *Karabineer* and the short rifle of a foot artilleryman and that of the engineering troops (*Genietruppen*) six cartridges also. This rifle has been only very recently introduced. The firing is much more rapid than in the case of the old rifle.

I will deal first, with the rifle-shooting practice which must be undergone by a Swiss recruit, for in Switzerland State military training and volunteer rifle shooting associations are so inextricably interwoven that wholly to separate one from the other is an impossibility. It must, first of all, never be forgotten that a Swiss recruit has probably, as a boy and youth, already acquired more than elementary notions of

how to shoot—a subject to which I will revert later on. In his forty-five days' training, supposing him to be an infantry recruit, it is expected that he shall become a passable shot; and what he is first taught is always how to handle his rifle and how to drill with blank cartridges. Not till he is considered sufficiently expert with these is he allowed to practise with ball cartridges, which is not as a rule until he has been more than a fortnight in training. An average of fifty cartridges is allowed for each man, good shots requiring fewer and bad shots more, but no one is allowed to fire less than twenty-five. The targets are as follows (1 metre 80 or nearly 6 ft. square):—

TARGET A, divided into circles of 40, 60, 100 and 150 centimetres (or, in English measures, about $15\frac{3}{4}$ in., one hit counting 4 points; 1 ft. $11\frac{1}{2}$ in., one hit counting 3 points; 3 ft. $3\frac{1}{3}$ in., one hit counting 2 points; and 4 ft. 9 in., one hit counting one point).

TARGET B shows the picture of a recumbent man in a circle 70 centimetres round (2 ft. $3\frac{1}{2}$ in.), one hit counting 2 points; and another circle 3 ft. $3\frac{3}{8}$ in. (1 metre), to hit which counts 1 point.

TARGET C. Head and shoulders target. Shows 3 recumbent figures 50 centimetres high (1 ft.

7½ in.). Hitting the heart counts 2 points. Besides this there is a band of slightly over 50 centimetres in width, hitting which counts 1 point.

TARGET D, a target with a space in which are 3 kneeling figures 1 metre (3 ft. 3⅔ in.) high. Shots within the band count 2.

Once the instructor has decided that a recruit is fit to undergo his shooting tests, the latter has to shoot six times at Target A, at a distance of 300 metres (328 yards). It is optional whether he shoots kneeling or lying down, but if he does not make at least five hits and gain twelve points he must continue practising until he is able to do so.

After having passed this test, which may be considered as more or less preliminary, a recruit has to show what he can do by shooting, as follows:—

	Yards.	In each case six shots.
Target A	328	Kneeling; rifle not resting on or supported against any object.
Target B	„	Lying; with elbow rest.
Target D	„	Standing; rifle as for Target A.
Target C	428	Lying; rifle as for Target A.

Officers and subalterns must, of course, also undergo these preliminary and prin-

cial tests in the recruiting school, besides having to attend special rifle shooting courses which are arranged for them weekly.

These and all other Swiss rifle shooting regulations appear to be based on the idea that every man must shoot, and that if he is naturally a bad shot, he must simply try repeatedly until he becomes a reasonably good one.

Turning now to the annual shooting tests prescribed for all Swiss soldiers, after they have completed their military training, we find it is mainly left to the Rifle Shooting Associations to see that these tests are undergone and the War Office requirements regarding shooting complied with. The tests are as follows:—

1. Target A. Position: lying or kneeling. Rifle not resting on or supported against any object.
2. Target A. Position: kneeling. Rifle as before.
3. Target A. Position: standing. Rifle as before.
4. Target B. Position: lying, with elbow rest.
5. Target B. Position: lying. Rifle as in 1, 2, 3.
6. Target B. Position: kneeling. Rifle as in 1, 2, 3, 5.

The regulation distance is always 328 yards.

Severe pains and penalties await the Swiss soldier who refuses to do his compulsory shooting practice. Four months' imprisonment, two years' deprivation of civic rights, and Frs. 25 fine is one sentence passed, for example, on a French-Swiss refractory. Whoever fails, it may be through no fault of his own, to make the minimum number of hits and gain the minimum number of marks has to undergo a special course of practice, lasting three days, without receiving any pay therefor. If a soldier be seen to be genuinely endeavouring to shoot well, but nevertheless to make no progress, then his eyes are examined by a committee of oculists. If nothing be found wrong with them, he has no choice but to continue trying until he shoots better.

Not only does the Swiss War Office, as I have said, leave it to the volunteer rifle shooting associations to carry out all these rifle shooting regulations, but the better to do so the associations embody the Government regulations in their own programmes and statutes, which provide for every variety of practice. Each year, unless Switzerland should be, as at present, in a condition of

armed neutrality owing to a European war, there are *Feldsektionswettschiessen* (Field Sections Rifle Shooting Competitions), when all the rifle associations of one Canton meet on the same day for practice, each man undergoing the following tests, firing at Target B, 328 yards distance:—

Six shots each.

Individual shooting. Position: lying. Rifle not resting on or supported against any object.

Individual shooting. Position: kneeling. Rifle as before.

Rapid firing . . . Position: kneeling. Time, 1 minute.

The results of this field practice are afterwards compared, and the associations which can show the best totals receive laurel wreaths. The more important associations usually hold field-firing exercises once a year, the targets being figures set up in accordance with Army regulations, at a distance which is not stated. Until quite recently Swiss Rifle Associations seldom shot at moving targets; but in the last few years before the war shooting at moving and disappearing targets was very much

encouraged, all the principal military exercise grounds being now fitted up for such shooting. The last shooting practice in each year is generally made the occasion for a mild festivity, when prizes, but not money prizes, are awarded to the best shots. At normal times these *Schützenfeste*, shooting festivals, as they are called, are arranged throughout Switzerland during the spring and summer months; and every three years there is held the Federal Rifle Shooting Match (*Eidgenössisches Schützenfest* or *Tir Fédéral*), which may be described as an event of truly national importance, attracting crowds of people from all parts of the country, not merely all the best marksmen, but thousands of spectators. The last of these Federal Shooting Matches had a sum of £1,196,607 at its disposal; continued for a fortnight, and was participated in by nearly 24,000 marksmen.

Large sums, for a country of such modest fortunes as Switzerland very large sums, are expended on cups, wreaths, silver medals, watches, brooches, and diplomas. Not only does the Confederation or Government contribute largely to these Federal Shooting

Matches, but also the Canton in which they are held. One such federal shooting match was to have been held in Lausanne in 1914, but owing to the war it has been postponed indefinitely. Doubtless when peaceful times return these Swiss national shooting festivals will once more be resumed.

In 1913, the last year for which official statistics are available, the Confederation paid a sum of £24,087 (Frs. 602,172) to volunteer rifle associations alone, apart from its other contributions for the encouragement of good marksmanship.

Besides the ammunition supplied to rifle associations for their shooting practice, the Swiss Government also subsidises cadet corps, preparatory military training (also a voluntary organisation), and military gymnastics, thus showing the importance it attaches not merely to good marksmanship, but likewise to beginning military training early and keeping it up afterwards. Furthermore, those officers whose duty it is generally to supervise volunteer rifle associations receive a Government indemnity, as also do rifle shooting committees, while in 1912 and 1913 all members of rifle

shooting associations who had duly accomplished the entire work prescribed received Frs. 2 each for compulsory practice and Frs. 1.50 each for optional practice. Rifle shooting instructors (*Schützenmeister*), or those members of rifle shooting associations whose duty it is to conduct and supervise rifle shooting practice, are obliged occasionally to attend courses of instruction, which the State also subsidises. Adding all these items together an annual total is reached which, especially for a small and not wealthy country such as Switzerland, is very considerable.

If the Swiss Government compels every soldier to practise rifle shooting, it also provides every one of them who belongs to a rifle shooting association with forty ball cartridges free for use in such practice, and with eighteen ball cartridges free for use in Cantonal shooting matches and field-firing practice, besides making each man doing compulsory or other rifle shooting practice small allowances for out-of-pocket expenses, which sums are always paid to the particular rifle shooting association to which he belongs. In the case of all other

customary shooting practice the State allows competitors to procure ammunition below cost price; and in the Swiss Government estimates may always be found, at all ordinary times, an item for the amount by which the State expects to be the loser owing to the difference between the cost at which cartridges are bought by it and the cost at which they are supplied to the rifle associations. In 1913 this sum amounted to Frs. 1,020,195 (£40,807 16s.). In 1912 over 7,500,000 rifle cartridges were used for the Swiss Army, and over 27,000,000 for rifle shooting practice.

No sketch of Swiss rifle shooting would be complete without reference to the Junior Department or *Jungschützen*, to whom belong youths past boyhood but still too young to be liable for military service, usually between seventeen and nineteen years of age. The Government gives the rifle associations subsidies for helping them to bear the cost of giving these youths free training in rifle shooting. The training is supervised and directed either a *Schützenmeister* or by some other experienced marksman, and includes instruction in the use of

a rifle, how to clean it and keep it in order, how to load it, and how to take aim. The shooting of these juniors is also strictly regulated, and for every youth so trained the association training him can claim a Government grant of Frs. 5, besides demanding a rifle for him from the Cantonal arsenal. For this rifle the boy himself is made responsible to the rifle association. Either the boy or the association must supply cartridges.

Cadet corps have existed for some twenty-five years in Switzerland, the number of their members in 1913, the latest year for which figures are obtainable, having been 7,883, and the number of *Jungschützen* in the same year 2,615. The Boy Scouts organisation also exists (*jeunes éclaireurs* or *Pfadfinder*, as they are called), though they are as yet still recent.

Swiss cadets are recruited from among the pupils of what are virtually secondary schools. Cadet corps are purely voluntary organisations. Cadets wear uniform, which they must supply, and are lent by Government a rifle which, in construction, is precisely like that used in the Swiss Army,

THE
SCHOOL OF
ARTILLERY



SWISS CADETS AT RIFLE-SHOOTING.



SWISS CADETS AT ARTILLERY PRACTICE.

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only smaller. Ordinary ammunition is used for it.

Sunday, more than any other day, is in Switzerland devoted to rifle shooting practice, which, however, is not allowed during the hours of divine service. In view of the seriousness of the purpose underlying it, it is not in any way considered in the light of Sabbath desecration, and the much stricter regulations concerning Sunday observance introduced of late years by many Cantons have never interfered with Sunday rifle practice.

Part of the work of Swiss rifle associations consists in furnishing and, at any rate partially defraying, the expenses of rifle teams to compete in international shooting matches; and it is these matches which perhaps more than anything else testify to the general excellence of Swiss marksmanship, and help to maintain its high standard. The eighteen international shooting matches held from 1897 to 1914 give the following results, which form a fitting conclusion to this chapter:—

	International Rifle			Marks.
1897	Shooting Match at Lyons			2,310, 1st
1898	"	"	Turin	2,310, 2nd
1899	"	"	The Hague	4,528, 1st
1900	"	"	Paris	4,399 "
1901	"	"	Lucerne	4,567 "
1902	"	"	Rome	4,484 "
1903	"	"	Buenos Aires	4,598 "
1904	"	"	Lyons	4,542 "
1905	"	"	Brussels	4,737 "
1906	"	"	Milan	4,716 "
1907	"	"	Zürich	4,848 "
1908	"	"	Vienna	4,617 "
1909	"	"	Hamburg	4,840 "
1910	"	"	The Hague	4,918 "
1911	"	"	Rome	5,014 "
1912	"	"	Biarritz	5,172 "
1913	"	"	Camperry, U.S.A.	4,957 "
1914	"	"	Vyborg	5,025 "

That is, Swiss marksmen were first in seventeen cases out of eighteen in international rifle shooting competitions.

CHAPTER V

THE TRAINING OF OFFICERS AND NON-COMMISSIONED OFFICERS

PROMOTION in the Swiss Army is, at any rate nominally, entirely from the ranks. In any case no one can possibly become an officer without having first gone through his training as an ordinary soldier.

The Swiss soldier who has given sufficient proof of his intelligence and general military aptitude for it to be proposed to make him a non-commissioned officer (*Unteroffizier*) or lance - corporal in the infantry, ambulance corps, or commissariat troops, must attend a non-commissioned officers' school for a period of twenty days. In the case of men intended for the cavalry, artillery, engineering, or fortification troops, this period is increased to thirty-five days. The names of likely men are proposed by the officers under whom they have been trained in the recruits' school, or by officers under

whom they have been through their repetition courses. A non-commissioned officer whom it is proposed to make a quartermaster has to attend a special school for quartermasters during thirty days, and after having been promoted to be quartermaster, he must go through a recruits' school in his new capacity.

PREPARATORY TRAINING OF OFFICERS

The preparatory training of officers takes place in special schools, and lasts:—

				80 days in the case of officers intended for infantry, cavalry, and fortification troops;
105	„	„	„	intended for artillery and engineers;
60	„	„	„	intended for train troops;
45	„	„	„	intended for ambulance and commissariat troops and veterinary surgeons.

In order to lessen the demands made upon an aspirant to the position of an officer of artillery or engineers, it is enacted that he may divide his one hundred and five days' training into two periods.



INFANTRY REGIMENTAL STAFF.

In civilian life the occupations of these officers, reading from left to right, are as follows:—The Adjutant is a Hotel-keeper; the Chaplain is, of course, a pastor; the Colonel or Commandant is the General Manager of a Bank; the Quartermaster is Inspector for a prominent Swiss Insurance Company; and the fifth, the doctor, is a well-known woman's Specialist.

THE UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO

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It is the commandant of an officers' school or the commandant of an army unit at repetition courses who reports as to the character and social station of those whom it is proposed to promote to be non-commissioned officers. Ambulance or veterinary men are simply summoned to attend the officers' school, when their time comes to do so, by the chief army physician or veterinary surgeon, as the case may be.

In the "Aims of an Officer's Training," issued by the Swiss War Office, it is enunciated that no officers' school can turn out officers ready-made. Skill in commanding men can be acquired only by training men afterwards in the recruits' school. The aim is to teach an officer what he must know by practical experience, and not merely theoretically or from books. It is obviously considered better to know comparatively little and that little thoroughly well, than to have a superficial acquaintance with a great variety of subjects.

THE TRAINING OF COMMISSIONED OFFICERS

The schools and courses of special training for Swiss officers aim at enlarging their

military knowledge, and above all at enabling them to think independently and to form wise judgments in whatever circumstances may present themselves, acting on their own initiative and meeting difficulties as these arise. Whatever special aptitudes a man may have acquired in the exercise of his civilian vocation should be, it is insisted, utilised to the utmost in his military career.

In one school subalterns whom it is intended to promote to be captains of infantry, cavalry, artillery, engineers or fortification troops are taught how to command their men; and it is considered necessary that even young officers such as these should understand not only the tactics of their own category of soldiers, but also the organisation and use of other categories, so as to know how to deal with mixed detachments of troops. Theoretical instruction is imparted by means of training in the open country and by sham fights.

In a second school the captains whom it is intended to promote to a higher rank are so trained as to fit them for holding it. Besides general and special tactics, the syllabus includes military history, permanent forti-

fications, the laws of war, and the commissariat and ambulance services.

In Switzerland anyone who is intelligent, sufficiently well educated, of good character, and of sound constitution can become an officer—not, perhaps, a colonel or even a lieutenant-colonel, but a lieutenant or captain. An insurance agent, for instance, may hold the rank of major, a reception clerk in a hotel that of captain, a hotel-keeper may be a colonel, an editor may be a commandant of a brigade. Doctors, of course, take their places in the ambulance corps, and in order to show in detail the working of the Swiss military system as regards officers, I think I cannot do better than give the following brief account of his training supplied me by a Swiss army doctor still young enough to be liable for military service.

THE MILITARY TRAINING OF AN ARMY DOCTOR

The Army Medical Corps (*Sanitätsoffiziere*) are, of course, medical men who, like other recruits, must begin their military training at the age of nineteen, when they spend sixty days in an ambulance recruits'

school (*Sanitätsrekrutenschule*). Such recruits are, for the most part, already medical students in their civilian capacity, and matters are so arranged that they are able to undergo their military service and training in their holidays. After the first year, they have annually to attend a repetition course of eleven days or slightly more. A medical student found fit for service is trained for a non-commissioned officer, in a non-commissioned officers' school, the time of training here being twenty days. Next year, when he should be a corporal, he spends sixty days in a recruits' school, helping with the training of recruits. After this he has his annual eleven days repetition course, already mentioned, until he has passed his Government examination, whereupon he is called upon to attend a special officers' training school for forty-five days. Every Swiss army doctor, therefore, must have first been a non-commissioned army medical officer (*Sanitätsunteroffizier*), and secondly, have passed his Government medical examination, besides of course having been found physically fit for service.

Supposing him to have passed successfully through his officers' training school, he is appointed an army medical officer with the rank of lieutenant, in which capacity he must spend thirty-three to thirty-eight days as *Schularzt* (resident medical officer), either with infantry, engineers, artillery, or cavalry, after which every year he has his repetition course of eleven days to a fortnight, with troops of the particular category to which he has been allotted, generally a battalion, an artillery division, or a cavalry squadron. In these cases he will probably be mounted, but he may be allotted to an ambulance company, in which case he will not be mounted.

After he has served two years as a sub-lieutenant (*Leutnant*) he is promoted to be lieutenant (*Oberleutnant*), a rank which he continues to hold four years. He then attends a so-called *Zentralschule* (a special school for training officers only) during thirty to fifty days, after which time he should be promoted to be captain, and may be put in command of an ambulance company. As captain he still continues to attend his repetition courses for eleven days to a

fortnight annually. It is of course open to him to seek further promotion, but if he is to obtain this he must attend still more special courses of instruction, and, moreover, before being promoted his fitness for higher rank in the army medical service will be taken into consideration. A Swiss army doctor with the rank of lieutenant who is considered to have special aptitudes for army medical service is simply put into the *Landwehr*, or Second Reserve. Army doctors with the rank of captain also enter the Second Reserve on attaining the age of thirty-eight, remaining in this category until the age of forty-four, when they enter the *Landsturm*, or last reserve, where they remain till fifty-two. It goes almost without saying also that many Swiss doctors do not serve in the army at all, not being considered physically fit.

GENERAL STAFF OFFICERS

Officers are trained for the Swiss General Staff in three different schools. The first, the General Staff School No. 1, they must attend seventy days; the second, the General Staff School No. 2, for men of the rank of



SWISS CAVALRY.

captain, they must attend forty-two days; and the third, General Staff School No. 3, must be attended twenty-one days, but only by officers who have already passed through the two preceding schools. Additional courses of training may be ordered by the Swiss Federal Assembly. The Swiss Army has no General except when the country is, as at present, in a state of armed neutrality.

SWISS ARMY INSTRUCTORS

In 1915 the Swiss Army had a staff of 189 professional instructors, or men who devote their whole time and energies to training soldiers and officers. That is to say, they are professional military men, and not, like other Swiss officers, citizens first and officers afterwards. The corps of instructors of each category of troops is directly under the head of the corresponding division of the Swiss War Office; but the head of the body of men responsible for the training of fortification troops is the chief of the fortifications section of the Swiss General Staff. In 1915 the Swiss

Army possessed the following professional instructors:—

Infantry	120	instructors
Cavalry	15	„
Artillery	25	„
Engineers	8	„
Fortification troops	7	„
Ambulance corps	9	„
Commissariat troops	5	„
	<hr/>	
	189	

An officer who is a candidate for the position of an instructor must produce a certificate proving that he has attended an academy or university; must be of sound health, and have already successfully been through a recruits' school and a repetition course in the capacity of officer; also he must be master of two of the national languages of Switzerland, German, French and Italian. Since 1911 a candidate for the post of professional instructor in the Swiss Army has usually received practical and theoretical training for his profession during at least three years. He must go through the ordinary curriculum of the military school forming part of the Federal Technical Academy, and must have done

military service with troops. Candidates for the post of instructor of commissariat troops must have spent at least one year at the chief Commissariat Office of the Swiss Army. The annual pay of professional Swiss Army instructors is as follows:—

	Frs.	£
Staff Officers . . .	5,200-7,300	= 208-292
Captains . . .	4,200-5,800	= 168-232
Non-commissioned Officers .	3,700-4,800	= 148-192

CHAPTER VI

COMPULSORY SERVICE AND INDUSTRIAL PROGRESS

[The following chapter has been supplied by a British merchant brought up and long resident in Germany, and consequently thoroughly conversant with conditions there. When war broke out he happened to be staying in Germany, but was allowed to go to Switzerland owing to his being beyond military age. He is well known in London commercial circles—more or less known, in fact, in all the chief manufacturing centres in England. His knowledge of both German and British conditions lends to his opinions a value which they could not possibly have possessed had they happened to be those of a man acquainted, however well, with one country only, and not with both.]

“And why was all this striving in blood against insurmountable difficulties? Why were men thus sent to slaughter when the application of a just science would have rendered the operation comparatively easy? Because the English ministers, so ready to plunge into war, were quite ignorant of its exigencies; because the English people are warlike without being military, and under the pretence of maintaining a liberty which they do not possess, oppose in peace all useful martial establishments. Expatriating in their schools and colleges upon Roman discipline and Roman valour, they are heedless of Roman institutions; they desire, like that

ancient republic, to be free at home and conquerors abroad, but start at perfecting their military system, as a thing incompatible with a constitution, which they yet suffer to be violated by every minister who trembles at the exposure of corruption. In the beginning of each war England has to seek in blood for the knowledge necessary to ensure success, and like the fiend's progress towards Eden, her conquering course is through chaos followed by death!"

THREE-QUARTERS of a century have gone by since these weighty words were written, words which in the light of recent events may truly be termed prophetic. They are to be found in a work which ranks amongst the noblest productions of English historical literature, and which certainly is one of the best military histories of all times and of all nations. I refer to Napier's "History of the War in the Peninsula."

Napier had gone through this long campaign, and was impelled to his passionate outburst by the scenes he had witnessed. He saw a brave but miserably provisioned army melt away during the retreat to Corunna. He had taken part in the terribly exhausting march to Talavera, executed by three regiments over rugged Spanish mountain paths, beneath a blazing sun, and in

uniforms and with accoutrements wholly unsuited to such a climate. He relates how the British soldiers, during the siege of Badajoz, endeavoured to secure their enemies' entrenching tools, their own being so bad as to be almost useless; how the artillery received cannon balls too large for their guns, and the cavalry horse-shoes without nails. He witnessed the carnage at the storming of Badajoz,* and fought at Fuentes de Onoro (1811), Salamanca, Nive, Orthez, and Toulouse.

The whole campaign had demonstrated the results of unpreparedness, and of a system—or the absence of a system—of supply, which permitted army agents and contractors to dip their hands into the nation's pockets, regardless of the consequences to the army they were supposed to be serving.

When, however, Napier, the experienced soldier and historian, was nearing his end, suffering from the effects of old wounds, from illness and misfortune, he had to endure the crowning sorrow of seeing his

* Stormed by the British under Wellington, April 6, 1812. 5,000 British killed.

exhortations disregarded as though never a line of them had been written, a fate which in some respects is reminiscent of that of Lord Roberts. The coalition Government then in power sent an army to the Crimea, well supplied with razors and New Testaments, but lamentably short of most other essential equipment. When we read the report of the committee, appointed ostensibly to inquire into the causes of this mismanagement but really to appease the just anger of the British people, we feel that it did nothing but dot the i's and cross the t's of Napier's indictment.

"Your committee," it wrote, "report that the sufferings of the army mainly resulted from the circumstances under which the expedition to the Crimea was undertaken and executed. The administration which ordered that expedition had no adequate information as to the amount of the forces in the Crimea. They were not acquainted with the strength of the fortresses to be attacked or with the resources of the country to be invaded. They hoped and expected the expedition to be immediately successful, and, as they did not foresee

the probability of a protracted struggle, they made no preparation for a winter campaign."

How painfully some passages in this report recall the Gallipoli expedition, and likewise old Oxenstjerna's* letter to his son: "Thou knowest not, my dear son, with how little wisdom the world is being governed."

Some improvements were, indeed, introduced into the service as a consequence of these bitter lessons, but neither England's own experience in the Crimea nor the examples of the fate which befell Denmark, Austria, and France in the wars of 1864, 1866, and 1870, were sufficient to bring home to the British people and their Governments the elementary truth that the whole military organisation of the Empire had become an anachronism. True, there

* Axel Count Oxenstjerna, 1583-1654, Swedish statesman. In 1611 Gustavus Adolphus made him imperial chancellor. During the Polish war he was virtually regent of Sweden. In 1631 Gustavus summoned him to Germany, and put him at the head of diplomatic affairs there. By his tact he prevented the Protestant cause in Germany from being lost. He drafted also a new constitution for Sweden, considered a masterpiece of statecraft. In 1636 he returned to his own country to superintend the education of Christina, the infant queen.

were not wanting men of experience and insight, who perceived the danger and pointed it out, but their voices were voices in the wilderness. The fate of the prophet is never enviable when the adoption of his counsels would imply the surrender of old traditions and ingrained prejudices. It is more comforting to selfish instincts to listen to noisy and ignorant demagogues or to nebulous dreamers, who decry as "croakers" and pessimists those who would give a warning of danger ahead. A man who raised up before his audience the spectre of militarism, and prophesied the destruction of British liberty, British trade and industry, and British happiness generally, if any laws were passed compelling an able-bodied citizen to prepare himself for the defence of his country, has hitherto been more certain of thunderous applause than the man who has insisted on the necessity of reorganising the army in conformity with the altered conditions of Europe. What contempt an old campaigner such as Lord Roberts must have felt for the smooth-tongued demagogues who repeated, in season and out of season, that in the "most unlikely

event" of an armed conflict between the great military powers of the Continent, "our splendid little army of 100,000 men" would be the decisive factor!

It is too early yet to form any clear conception of the state of Europe after this terrible war; but it must be evident to every open-minded man that England, however much exhausted she may be by her struggle, cannot possibly revert to her old chronic state of military unreadiness. A system of national service must be introduced which will enable her to face future dangers under more favourable circumstances than was the case in the present war, a system that will afford a maximum of security with the smallest possible demands on the time and the money of citizens. Under the threat of danger, opposition to compulsory service is now confined to a few persons whom Americans would call "cranks." Nevertheless, I feel convinced that, when all danger has passed, those men who before the war opposed compulsion will furbish up their old theories again, will tell their hearers again that "everything is for the best in the best of all possible lands," and will resist



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the permanent establishment of compulsory national service. They should remember, however, that in the present war England has had ample time to improvise armies, and to turn chaos into something like order. She may not always be so fortunate. The greater the importance of technical devices in modern warfare, the greater the initial advantage possessed by such a country as Germany, which, in the products of her mines, the variety and size of her factories, the number and skill of her workmen, and the inventive genius of her technologists, has all the materials for preparing, unknown to foreign military attachés, such ugly surprises as guns of immensely long range, mine throwers, *Flammenwerfer*,* etc. While most of these new inventions have been applied to warfare on land, it has yet to be seen whether Germany has not surprises in store for us on sea; but even assuming that we will be spared a contest against new inventions, it is not to be doubted that she will, later on, concentrate all her technical resources on the production of means with which to paralyse the power of the British Navy.

* Fire-jets.

England cannot rely any longer on her navy as her sole ready means of defence. She must have an army strong enough to be launched in overwhelming numbers against an enemy, in case, for instance, a naval battle should not be decided in our favour, and a landing be attempted or effected on our shores.

What I have sketched out may appear a formidable programme in view of the fact that England is accumulating a staggering debt, and that manufacturers and traders have lean years awaiting them. No war ever was nor ever will be the basis of sound commercial prosperity. A short-lived appearance of activity will most probably set in after the conclusion of peace, but the real crisis will come afterwards.

After the war, manufacturers and working-men will have to join hands in the economic strife, and both will have to shoulder their burden for the defence of the Empire. To cut down needless expenses in both production and National defence will be of paramount importance.

It may be asked: How can an army be run "on the cheap," so to speak? Let us

not be too proud to learn from Prussia. A hundred years ago she contrived to do this, and with marvellous results. When the country had been defeated in the contest of 1806-7, and was nearly bled to death by Napoleon, who, moreover, allowed her only a very small standing army, the genius of Scharnhorst* evolved, in face of the most strenuous opposition from martinet generals of the Frederician school, a system the essence of which consisted in taking every able-bodied man, passing him through drill as rapidly as possible, and sending him home again to make room for another. The victorious campaigns of 1813-1815 proved conclusively the efficacy of the system; and when it was given up, to some extent, after the war, this was not on account of any defect, but simply because it was the fixed plan of that hopelessly incompetent King, Frederick William III, to undo as far as possible the work of men whom he personally disliked, and to cancel all concessions which

* Scharnhorst, Gerhard Johann David von, 1755-1813. Prussian soldier who served against France in 1793, and in 1801 became head of the military academy in Berlin. It was in 1807 that he began the reorganisation of the Prussian army by which he laid the foundations of her military power.

the people had wrung from him in his hour of need. It took the German people nearly ninety years to get the active service gradually reduced to two years in the infantry, whilst now three months are considered sufficient to train a man.

Having been educated in Germany, I have remained on friendly terms with many young men who went straight from school into the army. Consequently I acquired an interest in military matters which I have retained to this day; and later on, when for business reasons I had to visit most European countries as well as the United States, I spent much of my spare time watching "crack" regiments drilling, and following them during their exercise marches or manœuvres. In so doing I satisfied myself that, by eliminating from drill all useless movements and parade exercises, an infantryman can be trained in six months; and I would advocate that every able-bodied British subject should be called upon to perform these six months' service between his eighteenth and twenty-first year, passing afterwards into the reserve, and being liable to undergo a

short repetition course every second year. The cavalry, artillery, and special service troops would require a twelve months' course of training.

To obtain the backbone of a regiment, that is, trusty and energetic non-commissioned officers, privates might be induced by a money grant to sign for a further six months' service, after their original term, whilst subalterns might be trained on a system resembling the German *Einjährig-Freiwilligendienst* (Volunteer Service for One Year). The essence of this institution is that young men of good family pass, before their service, an examination in history, geography, mathematics, and two foreign languages. If successful, they serve only one year instead of two, paying all their expenses and enjoying some privileges in the matter of fatigue duties. After six months' service they become corporals, and then, after the day's routine work, attend special lectures on all subjects with which a future officer must be acquainted. Another and fairly severe examination decides whether they are to be retained as non-commissioned officers or whether they are

to undergo some repetition courses and ultimately receive an officer's commission.

I am certain that this system has been of the greatest benefit to Germany. The prospect of serving only one year instead of two, of being able to wear the black and white cords on the shoulder-straps--the distinctive mark of *Einjährige*, and generally alluded to as *Intelligenzschnüre* (intelligence cords)—and the possibility of becoming later on an officer of the reserve, act as powerful incentives to study. One of the great defects of the English educational system, the neglect of modern languages, would naturally have to be remedied; but if examinations were not restricted to two or three languages, but permission granted to choose any European or Oriental tongue, British shipping houses might presently be less dependent on young foreigners for their correspondence than they are now. The choice of languages could be influenced to a certain extent by making proficiency in one of the more difficult languages, such as Russian or Arabic, equivalent to proficiency in two comparatively easy tongues, such as Italian, French, or Spanish.

The difference between the German and English systems of ensuring the supply of officers would only be that, whilst Germans undergo one year's education, Englishmen would have six months' extra service, the total time being the same for both. The permanent officers would have to be trained very much as formerly.

Considering that every European country has built up its defensive system on a basis interfering in most cases far more with the liberty of the subject and the civilian life of its citizens than that which I am suggesting, I am of opinion that nothing short of prejudice or indifference to the country's welfare could refuse to take into serious contemplation the question of some form of universal service in England after the war.

To contend that six or twelve months' service breaks up a young man's career and makes him forget what he has learned at school or in the workshop is nothing less than a libel on the average Briton; and even assuming that out of a thousand men there may be one single unfortunate individual so poorly endowed mentally that he

cannot stand the strain, he might claim exemption from service, thereby also forfeiting his right to have a voice in his country's affairs. The man who cannot or will not fulfil his civic duties has no claim to exercise rights which imply possession of capabilities in which he admits himself to be deficient.

CHAPTER VII

WHAT THE GERMAN-SWISS SAY CONCERNING THE PRACTICAL WORKING OF THEIR MILI- TARY SYSTEM

AS there are probably many, both in Great Britain and the United States, who object to universal military service principally on the ground of its undue interference with the private lives, liberties, and careers of individuals, I have taken the trouble to inquire from certain selected Swiss of my acquaintance as to how they had made their military duties fit in with their various avocations, and whether they considered that these duties had in any way interfered with their careers. I can well imagine an English or American lawyer saying that, were he obliged to interrupt his college or university studies, and still more his practice as a lawyer, and go for military training, service, or repetition courses, he must

infallibly be first hindered in the passing of his examinations and, secondly, impeded in his professional advancement. Being unable to attend to his practice, he would be liable to lose his clients and possibly important cases in court. Similar arguments might well be raised by a medical man, and, for that matter, by a member of any other profession or occupation.

The opinions which I have elicited in order to prove that such objections have in reality but slight foundation, are those of Swiss belonging to absolutely different social classes and representative of the most diverse professions and occupations. Some are German-Swiss and others French-Swiss; some are officers and others merely privates; some belong to one political party and others to another. Certain of them have even spent some time in England, while a few have also some acquaintance with life in the United States. I give the testimony of each man precisely as it was given to me, save that I have translated it from French or German, as the case might be.



AN ADVANCE OBSERVATION POST ON THE SWISS FRONTIER.



DIVINE SERVICE.

Before a mixed Swiss regiment, partly Protestant, partly Roman Catholic. The Roman Catholic chaplain is preaching, and the Protestant pastor standing near.

A RAILWAY OFFICIAL'S EXPERIENCE

One of the first from whom I made inquiries was a high official of the Swiss Federal Railways. I asked him in particular how the fact of Swiss railway officials and servants being liable to military service affects the working of the railways as a whole, and how an individual railway servant or official manages to reconcile his duty to the State as his employer with his duty to be able to defend that State in time of need. Anyone working for the Swiss Federal Railways must obviously fulfil both the obligations of a civil servant directly employed by the Government and of a soldier in the army. The reply of this railway official, whose military rank is only that of a private, was as follows:—

“To begin with, I would remind you that a large number of railway servants are not taken on by the State Railways, or not permanently appointed, until their time in the recruits' school is over. Furthermore, according to Article XIII, paragraph 6, of the Swiss Army Organisation, such Federal Railway officials as are indispensable to the proper working of the lines in war-time are

freed from personal service. These indispensable officials and servants are, besides the directors, all who have to do with the guarding of the lines and with station management, and all conductors, guards and others who usually accompany trains or have to do with their despatch; also railway servants employed in and about stations and for luggage transport and goods traffic.

“Those members of the State Railways staff who must continue doing their military service number in Switzerland about one-third of the total, and include officials of the managerial offices; the clerical staff, labourers, and others connected with the upkeep of the lines; all men employed on new constructions and buildings; all men whose employment has to do with traffic management; officials and railway servants responsible for looking after rolling stock and engaged in workshops; besides a few isolated categories of officials and men employed on steamer services.

“It may be,” continued this railway official, “that if the staff were not liable to be called away for military service, it would be pos-

sible to manage here and there with one or two fewer people; but, speaking generally, it may be said that the military service of the staff does not seriously impede the smooth working of the railways. The officials and employees liable to serve in the army belong to those departments whose work is such as to admit of a temporary diminution in the number of the staff. At any rate, in the department to which I belong we have never yet noticed any inconveniences arising from the obligation to serve. Nevertheless, the staff of our office, twenty-three in number, of whom six are women, includes eight men liable for service in one division of the army or another. Up to the present four of these eight have had to do military service every year.

“Neither officials nor employees of any category suffer loss owing to being obliged to do military service, at any rate not those sufficiently far advanced to have been appointed permanent members of the staff. Their posts are kept open for them, and during their absence they continue to receive their salary or wages. One exception only is made to this rule, and that is in

cases where a railway servant either has to undergo military service as a punishment or volunteers to do it. For instance, it happens not at all infrequently that officials or other railway servants apply to the War Office to be allowed to take part in courses of instruction which they are not obliged to attend. In such cases the management of the Federal Railways does not pay them their salary or wages while they are absent from their posts. Yet another exception is made for workmen, who, while attending a recruits' school, receive only half pay.

“You ask also whether anyone employed by the Federal Railways is liable to have his holiday or leave of absence curtailed because of his having had to be absent on military service. This is done only in certain special circumstances—for instance, if the time spent in military service exceeds three weeks in the year. The holiday to which the employee in question would ordinarily have been entitled is then reduced to one week. Officials and employees, however, who do not come under the Railway Employment Act, can in any case claim only one week's leave of absence at the age

when they undergo the longer periods of military service; and in the case of those who do come under this Act there is usually no deduction made from the leave of absence to which they are entitled.

“Our officials for the most part take a pleasure in their military service, and I think the same would hold good of the workmen. Personally I have met only one man of them all who, when I asked him whether he enjoyed doing his military service, replied that he did not; and even he could not tell me why. I have every reason, moreover, not to take his statement very seriously, for since then he has risen from one rank in the army to another. This proves that he must be a really good soldier, and I do not believe that anyone does truly good work in the army without taking a pleasure in it.

“As for myself,” he continued, “I have always been glad to go and do my military service. In my opinion it is a refreshing change, both mentally and physically, for workers in offices to be far away from their business for days together, out in the open air in all weathers, and doing work which

exercises in turn virtually every muscle in the body. I, at any rate, have never failed to return from my military service feeling that I had immensely improved in health, not to speak of the benefits of quite another order which I had derived from it, such as enlarged knowledge of human nature, the making of new friends, and the recollection of the pleasant hours spent with them after the day's work was done."

THE OPINION OF A LAWYER AND AN OFFICER

A lawyer, who has spent some time in England and who holds the rank of captain in the Swiss Army, being solicited by me for his opinion, replied as follows:—

"You ask me concerning the effects of military service as far as they have come under my personal observation, both its general effects and those which it has had in my own individual case.

"I will do my best to give you an answer. Like every other average Swiss youth, I was declared fit for service by the military authorities at the age of nineteen, being allotted to the infantry. I was not a little pleased to be declared fit for service, for all

the young fellows of my age considered it as anything but a piece of good fortune to be declared exempt. Among the recruits drawn at the same time as myself, I noticed many a mournful countenance because the decision of the examining Committee had not been favourable to its owner.

“I was of course aware that in the next few years, during which I was to study for my profession of a lawyer, I must spend many months doing military service; but far from shrinking from this prospect, I was delighted by it, and my subsequent experience has shown me that I had, indeed, every cause for satisfaction.

“I began my service at the age of twenty. Like everyone else, I had first of all to spend several weeks as an ordinary soldier in a school for recruits, which aimed at converting a civilian into a soldier able to march and shoot and endure fatigue. Such a soldier, if he have but a clear head and his heart in the right place, soon learns to do his duty to his country. I frankly admit that at the outset of my military service a great many things seemed very unfamiliar to me. For instance, I had never cleaned

boots or brushed clothes, nor made beds nor swept and dusted rooms, nor done mending, cooking, nor any of the other things which a proper soldier must be able to do. Very soon, however, I was freed from these tasks. The systematic physical training to which I was subjected from the very first day speedily accustomed me to all manner of severe exertion, such as long marches with a heavy knapsack on my back and a rifle on my shoulder, camping out in good and bad weather, and many other experiences, all requiring endurance.*

“At the conclusion of my course of training I was designated as fitted to be made a non-commissioned officer (*Unteroffizier*). I received my first training for this promotion in a ‘monthly school,’ where everything which had been learned in the recruits’ school was still more firmly ingrained and the teaching supplemented until the ele-

* The ordinary weight which a Swiss soldier carries is 25 to 28 kilos (55 to 61½ English lbs.); that is, with ammunition, wood, and a second pair of boots. Recently this load was reduced by about 4½ to 6½ lbs. Experiments are now being made with dividing his pack, so that the part carried weighs only about 11 lbs., the remainder being transported as baggage with the “train.”

mentary acquirements which a good soldier must possess had been thoroughly absorbed and digested. Besides this we received our first notions as to how to train raw recruits until they have lost the last vestiges of rawness, and how, as officers, to manage to behave towards our subordinates with tact and at the same time with assurance. All my military instructors, I must admit, laid stress on the necessity of the superior considering his subordinate before all things as a human being—a principle which must be strictly observed, especially in a democracy, where the humblest individual knows what human dignity means. There are, of course, exceptions in our army, but they are very few in number, and I personally have never known a case of an officer attaining high rank if he has failed to abide by this principle, and has treated his soldiers not as men but as things.

“My training in a non-commissioned officers’ school being over, the time came for me to put what I had learned to the test of practical experience. I was therefore sent to a recruits’ school to train ‘a group,’ in other words eight men, in the

elements of military service, which is a step forward both in the general and the special training of a soldier. The principle here prevails that by teaching others a man also teaches himself.

“During this stage of my military service I, together with a number of my comrades, was reported fit to be trained to become an officer. When asked by the military authorities whether I was willing to undergo an officer's training, I answered that I was. I was well aware that this would entail a considerable addition to my military duties, but I was not alarmed on that account any more than were my comrades. Military service is for most Swiss such a matter of course that the tendency is rather to do too much than too little.

“Thus I arrived at a training school for officers. Here we learned the elementary tactics necessary in order to be able to take command of a train of infantry, and were instructed with a view to enabling us to instruct a squad of infantry ourselves, and prepare them for service in a company. I need hardly say that during the whole of this part of our training we had also dili-

gently to practise all manner of physical exercises, such as gymnastics, running, riding, and fencing, intended to increase our capacity for endurance, in which respect as well as in devotion to his work an officer must always be far superior to his men. If he is incapable of being so, he had better give up trying to be an officer.

“After I had successfully gone through the officers’ school, I was promoted to be an infantry sub-lieutenant (*Leutnant der Infanterie*). And now my military service began in dead earnest. First of all I had again to do duty in a recruits’ school, where I was entrusted with the training of a squad of fifty infantry soldiers, besides which I had to attend two special schools to perfect my knowledge concerning two particular branches of military service. For instance, I had to attend a shooting school for one month in order to learn thoroughly how to handle the infantry rifle, while a shorter course of instruction, lasting a fortnight, was intended to teach those who took part in it how to lead patrols, especially in mountainous districts.

“My preparatory training, however, was

not at an end, and what was next expected of me was to be able to apply the knowledge I had acquired in the command of troops, which, in my case, happened to be an Oberland mountain battalion. For four years in succession I acted as leader of these troops during a fourteen days' repetition course, which was sometimes arranged mainly to serve the purpose of preventing what had already been learned from being forgotten, and sometimes took the form of manœuvres destined to prepare the men for actually taking part in war in case of need.

“At the end of these four years of annual repetition courses I was promoted to the rank of lieutenant (*Oberleutnant*), and for the sake of continuing my training still further I was appointed to a position as brigade adjutant. Besides the regular annual repetition courses I had now again to attend a special course of training for officers lasting four weeks, and destined to prepare the participants for commanding a company.

“I will now pass on to the time when war broke out. This is not the place to discuss the military service which has been



RECEIVING ORDERS FOR THE DAY.



MACHINE-GUN PRACTICE.

required of the Swiss since August, 1914, for although Switzerland and every Swiss capable of bearing arms have made heavy sacrifices during this time, nevertheless, these must be passed over in silence, as being trifling in comparison with what must be made by the belligerents, countless numbers of whom every day heroically risk life and health for the sake of their country. If I understand aright, I am asked only to say what Swiss military service is like in practice in normal times; consequently I omit from my narrative all reference to what has happened since the war.

“During my time as a student and the first years of my practice as a lawyer I did altogether 420 days military service. Compared with the periods of service in force in standing armies, this is not much, but it is nevertheless a very fairly long time when it is remembered that it had to be deducted from study and from ordinary professional work. Still, it was quite easy to fit in. While he is studying, a student accustoms himself to work all the harder in the time between the periods of his military service; and no sensible student ever dreams

of putting off his examinations on account of his military service, nor, should he fail, of attributing his 'ploughing' to having had to fulfil his duty to his country. Were he to do so, he would simply be laughed out of countenance.

"A somewhat different question is the one you ask me as to how military service affects a professional man in the exercise of his profession. I have already let it transpire that I am a lawyer. Now, judging by my own experience, I can say quite confidently that my military service has done me no harm whatever in my profession. On the contrary, all my fellow lawyers, all officials, and the Courts look upon it as a matter of course that they must go out of their way to accommodate a man who has to do his military service; and I have never suffered any loss, and would never have been allowed to suffer any, owing to my absence on service.

"In conclusion I should like to make a few general remarks. I consider it incumbent on every honourable citizen always to be at the disposal of his country when it is a question of defending it, for, after all, it

is to his country that he owes everything. This, however, is only possible for those who have been prepared by severe, systematic military training.

“Again, the benefits accruing from military service must never be forgotten. That the life of a soldier strengthens the body and invigorates the mind must be plain to all who know the value of sports. After every period of military service I have returned to my work with renewed pleasure in it and mentally refreshed. Moreover, on the many occasions when I have been doing military service I have become acquainted with two things of inestimable worth: My fellow-countrymen and my own country.

“I have come in contact with people of every social class; I have shared their joys and sorrows, and now I know with what manner of soul my own people are endowed. Moreover, I have travelled from one end of my native land to the other, from north to south and from west to east, and in this way learned to know and love it; and my case has been that of thousands of others of my fellow-countrymen.

“If the foreigner often cannot conceive

how it is that we Swiss, despite all differences, nevertheless, after all, understand one another so well and are so intensely attached to one another, he may seek for the explanation in the Swiss Army, which is one of the best achievements of modern Switzerland, and the value of which, in these times of peril, we have learned to appreciate."

THE GENERAL SECRETARY OF THE INTERNATIONAL PEACE BUREAU

Among those from whom I made inquiries as to the effects of universal military service was the General Secretary of the International Peace Bureau in Berne, who is also a member of the Swiss *Landsturm*, or last reserve. His reply is to the following effect:—

"I can say without any hesitation that military service has nowise injuriously affected either my career or my pecuniary interests. Neither has it, generally speaking, interfered with any of my personal ambitions. When the time came for me to present myself for medical examination, which

in Switzerland corresponds to the enrolment of recruits, I was a student at Vienna University. I asked for two years' respite, which was granted me without any difficulty. Hence it was not till 1889, when my studies were over, that I entered a recruits' school, which in my case happened to be at Lucerne. My recollections of the few weeks spent there, in the society of other recruits from all parts of the country, are of the pleasantest. Moreover, for anyone like myself, who had never had much leisure to devote to sports, my time as a recruit was the happiest and most healthful of diversions. Later on, when I became a teacher—a profession which I followed for more than ten years—I always succeeded in performing during the vacations such military duties as fell to my lot. Consequently I can say that my military duties have never stood in the way either of my calling or even of the carrying out of my own private plans. The military authorities in Switzerland always make liberal allowance for the circumstances of individual citizens, and anyone who does not delay too long in making application can, without

undue difficulty or too many formalities, contrive both to fulfil his military duties and conform to the exigencies of his civilian life.

“I suspect, however, that in your desire to ascertain my views you were thinking of me as a pacifist rather than as an ex-professor. There is no reason why I should conceal the fact that I was never an anti-militarist, at any rate, not in the narrow sense of the word. I would not presume to speak on behalf of pacifists throughout the world, although their headquarters is the office of whose staff I am at present a member; but I certainly think I am right in saying that all Swiss pacifists are ardent patriots. True, they may disapprove of piling Pelion on Ossa in the matter of armaments—a process which of late years has assumed a very menacing aspect. They may think that these continual increases in the number of canon and rifles have helped to bring about the present catastrophe by making the resultant financial situation impossible; and they may be of opinion that the Governments have failed in their duty by not endeavouring to establish a system

of rule based on a determination to ensure justice rather than on the balance of power, with effective punishments for infringements of law and for perjury, thus forming a sort of universal league against brigandage and murder. Granting all this, however, the fact remains that they all agree in thinking that so long as the state of international anarchy exists in which the world has lived hitherto, it would be both wrong and foolish for any nation to cease to have a strong and well-organised army.

“The Swiss Army is an army of pacifists in this sense—that there is not, I am certain, one of our citizen soldiers who would approve of the sword being drawn until all amicable and juridical methods of settling a dispute had been tried. It is a peace-loving army, but one which cannot for a moment be lightly brushed on one side; and likewise it is one which, owing to the spirit animating it, would be unconquerable. In order not to go back upon their word, the Swiss people ended by agreeing a few years ago to grant one of their powerful neighbours certain privileges upon their railways—that is to say, they allowed

Shylock to have the pound of flesh which he demanded.* But if ever their territory should be in danger, their militia forces would be at hand, and the Swiss pacifists would not be behind anyone else in doing their duty.

“Should armies ever entirely vanish—which is no more likely than that the handful of police who keep order in the streets of our old-fashioned capital of Berne should be abolished, it seems to me that we in Switzerland ought merely to do away with ammunition, our military organisation being otherwise the best school of civic virtues and of sane patriotism, and the best system for developing both physical strength and that sentiment of solidarity which should inspire all those who are united together for the realisation of one and the same ideal.”

OPINION OF A SWISS JOURNALIST

An assistant editor on the staff of a leading German-Swiss newspaper, from whom I also solicited some account of his experi-

* A reference to the famous Gothard Collection.

ences as a soldier and in making the military and civilian careers fit into one another, prefaced his remarks by modestly stating that he had never been aught save an ordinary soldier, "without any particular talent for the military calling and also without any particular enthusiasm for it.

"I served my time," he said, "because I had to do so, just as thousands of others do; and my case, as that of an average soldier, may therefore possibly afford some interest to the average British or American subject.

"It was in 1889 that I spent my forty-five days in the recruits' school. I was then, in civil life, a school teacher, but the recruits' military training was so arranged that it fell in the summer, during the vacation. It was a recruits' course for teachers and students only, who could not conveniently undergo their military service at any other time of year; and there were between seven and eight of us, about two-thirds being German-speaking Swiss, and the remainder from French Switzerland. There were also a few Italian Swiss and two or three Romanch-speaking Swiss from the

Grisons. All the orders, however, were given in German and French only, with both of which languages the higher officers were acquainted. The word of command, for instance, was always given in two languages, thus '*Achtung! Attention!*' '*Vorwärts! En avant!*'

"Our average level of education was fairly high, and accordingly rather heavy demands were made upon us. Thus we had to do a great many gymnastic exercises. Every morning for an hour or more before breakfast we used to practise gymnastics, which was very healthful, and gave us good appetites. Every morning we exercised and drilled, and every afternoon we went for marches in the neighbourhood of Lucerne, where our training course was held. If the weather was bad, we had theoretical instruction in map reading, rifle shooting, Swiss topography and knowledge of the country, etc. The chief march for which we went was a magnificent excursion over three mountain passes. On the first day we marched over the Brünig to Meiringen; on the second day over the Great Scheidegg to Grindelwald; and on



SWISS BARRACKS.



SWISS WRESTLING MATCH.

Wrestling is much encouraged because of the physical strength and agility which it confers.

the third day from Grindelwald to Interlaken, over the Grünenberg to Schangnau, and by rail back to Lucerne. Although we were so short a time under training, we were well trained, and we did not bear fatigue at all badly. Indeed, it has always been my experience that I have felt very strong and well while undergoing military service. Moreover, military service has excellent effects alike on ungainly peasant lads and on effeminate town-bred youths, tending to refine the former and to make the latter more manly.

“The first fifteen-day repetition course which it was my duty to attend when I was twenty, collided with my school-time. I therefore petitioned to be transferred to another regiment whose repetition course was not till the autumn. No objection was raised to this, and I had the further advantage of a pleasant journey right across Switzerland from Chur to Sion (Sitten) in the Valais, where the repetition course was held, passing on my way through Zürich, Berne, Fribourg and Lausanne. Throughout Switzerland the military authorities make every effort to enable young soldiers

and recruits undergoing training to see as much of their native land as possible. Thus during my military training I went over nearly the whole of Switzerland, and of the seven or eight training courses which I had to attend only one was held in the place where I had my home. We always went to some other canton, and in this way saw and learned much which otherwise we would not have seen or learned, all which is not without its good effect upon young men.

“On another occasion I had also to ask for leave to attend a repetition course other than the one at which I ought normally to have been present. I had then joined the staff of a newspaper, which had sent me for the whole summer of 1896 as its correspondent to the National Exhibition in Geneva. This time, also, my request was granted, and I was allowed to attend a course the following year at a more convenient time. The War Office was always ready to take into consideration any reasonable request to allow the performance of military duties to be postponed, if the latter could be shown really to clash

with professional work or duties. Even now, during mobilisation, when the frontiers are occupied, well-founded requests to be dispensed from military service or allowed to perform it at some other time are complied with whenever possible.

“During the whole time of my military service—that is, from my twentieth to my forty-fifth year—I served altogether exactly 153 days, almost precisely the same number of days as my son has had to serve during a single year. During the frontier occupation in 1915 he was undergoing his course of training as a recruit, and a few weeks later he was on night duty at the southern frontier.

“From all this it is clear that in peacetime Swiss military service is by no means particularly burdensome, nor is it, nor has it ever been, an obstacle to advancement in civilian life.

“I have forgotten to mention that during mobilisation in 1914 I had to do a few weeks *Landsturm* duty, but was dispensed owing to my health not having been sufficiently good. In the autumn of 1914 I handed back to the arsenal the rifle and

uniform which I had had in my keeping for five and twenty years, at the same time being entered in the category of 'those liable for auxiliary service.' In other words, if mobilisation on a large scale or anything of the kind should again take place, I shall perhaps once more have the honour of making myself useful by doing clerical work in some military office or possibly by acting as clerk to a committee for examining horses for the army. Such a case, however, is not very likely to occur."

CHAPTER VIII

WHAT THE FRENCH-SWISS SAY CONCERNING THE PRACTICAL WORKING OF THEIR MILI- TARY SYSTEM

WITHOUT touching upon controversial ground it may be stated that one of the facts elicited and brought into fierce light by this war is that, generally speaking, the trend of thought of the French-Swiss is different, sometimes radically different, from that of the German-Swiss. This divergence of opinion is most manifest when foreign affairs and policy come under consideration. As regards home politics, although it cannot for a moment be asserted that there is no divergence—which would be tantamount to saying that there is no political life in Switzerland—nevertheless, it may be stated that, as regards the necessity for an army, and for an army on the principle of a universal obligation to serve binding on all able-bodied men, there is probably no difference of opinion whatsoever.

Even the extreme Socialists, who think everything to do with military matters undesirable, admit, when confronted with facts, that an army is better than the enemy within their gates. When it comes to a question of disciplinary methods and drill, however, then a cleavage of opinion may often be observed between French-Swiss and German-Swiss. Nevertheless, this is confined to questions of organisation and management and does not touch the broad, general principle of the necessity for universal military service, as embodied in the Swiss constitution.

In Chapter VII I gave the views of several German-Swiss. In the present chapter I am citing the opinions of several French-Swiss, beginning with those of M. Horace Micheli, one of the members for Geneva city in the Swiss Parliament (Nationalrat). M. Micheli says:—

“You ask me what are the reasons why the Swiss military system, or a modification thereof, would be extremely well suited to democratic countries such as England and the United States.

“To begin with, I am bound to say that

I personally could not take the liberty of giving advice either to England or the United States. If, however, you wish to know what I think of the Swiss military system from the democratic standpoint, I shall very gladly reply.

“Like every Swiss, I am passionately attached to our army. I am but a modest officer in the last reserve, but the weeks which I spent under the colours will always remain among the pleasantest recollections of my youth. At the outset of the present war, it was the last reserve who were first called up, as cover troops; and from the evening of the 1st of August, 1914, we were taking up our positions absolutely on the frontier, with loaded rifles, ready to oppose any aggressor, no matter whence he might come. Our last reserve soldiers, men between forty and forty-eight years of age, almost all married men with a family, all with some occupation and heavy responsibilities in civil life, which they had just left at a moment's notice, were all glad to be once more in uniform to serve their country, and ensure its independence being respected.

“‘A citizen taking up arms to defend his

country.' Never have I realised the meaning of this essentially democratic phrase as I did during the first weeks of the month of August, 1914; and the news which reached us from Belgium caused us to realise it still more keenly, and made our duty of defending our country still more sacred.

"So much for the principle, upon which I need not enlarge. What we in Geneva felt is what was felt equally by every officer, non-commissioned officer, and soldier in our army, from one end of Switzerland to the other, without regard to language, race, or sympathies. With us devotion to our military institutions is inseparable from devotion to our country and to our democratic institutions. Moreover, the fact that the Swiss Army Law of 1907, that now in force, was accepted by the majority of the people themselves, lent it during the last period of stress a force which no law could ever have possessed which had been merely voted by Parliament or imposed by Government. In taking up arms or obeying their leaders, the people feel that by so doing they are exercising their own will, and even those who voted against the law feel this,

realising as they do that in a democracy the minority must submit to the majority.

“After the war the people mean to demand, as they are entitled to do, the revision of any clauses of this law which, during the war, have not worked satisfactorily, since even the best law is not absolutely perfect. The certain knowledge, however, that the majority of the nation may modify the army law, should they think fit so to do, tends to allay any discontent which may arise, or at any rate to cause discontented persons to have patience.

“I will now endeavour briefly to reply to your questions as to the practical working of the Swiss Army system. It is not necessary to enlarge upon the good effects of military service on the health of our young men. Thus it is a recognised fact that, with very few exceptions, young men leave the recruits' school or come away from their repetition courses benefited in health. The time spent at a recruits' school varies from two to three months, according to the category of soldier, besides which the ordinary infantry soldier has to attend annual repetition courses lasting about twelve days every

year between the ages of twenty-one and twenty-eight, and finally two or three courses lasting a few days each, while he is in the second reserve (thirty-three to forty years of age). Besides this, again, there are inspections of arms, uniforms, and accoutrements, and the annual rifle-shooting practice. Here you have the entire military career of an ordinary infantry soldier in peace time—160 to 180 days at most, between the ages of twenty and forty. There is nothing in this which need stand in the way of young men belonging to the less well-to-do classes earning their living, nor anything to prevent their entering one of the liberal professions, nor engaging in a commercial or industrial occupation. Furthermore, the authorities, generally speaking, do their best to enable young men to attend their recruits' school at the time of year when it clashes least with their professional or business interests.

“In war time, of course, the men are mobilised for a longer period, and may be called upon to remain under the colours several months, possibly nearly a year. This inevitably causes some interference

with their affairs and their civilian life; but after all who can pretend that when a world-war is going on he lives as in peacetime? A man who refuses to sacrifice his time, his money, and even if need be his life for the defence of his country does not deserve to have one; and the demands made on a Swiss soldier are very slight indeed as compared with the sacrifices which the war entails upon the belligerent nations.

“Moreover, as you are aware, the necessitous families of soldiers under arms are entitled to a State grant, which is proportioned to the number of children. Furthermore, after the first months of the war, the authorities disbanded all troops not absolutely necessary for the defence of our frontiers, and granted as many dispensations as were possible in view of the general situation.

“I do not wish to take up too much space, but I must say in conclusion that the Swiss military institutions strive as far as is in any way possible to reconcile the exigencies of preparation for war with the ideas and requirements of a hardworking

democracy such as the Swiss democracy. For this reason, despite occasional imperfections, which the Swiss people will themselves succeed in removing, our army, upon which our people look as the best guarantee of their independence, is still the most popular of all our institutions."

A SOCIALIST'S STATEMENT

The question, touched upon by the member of the Swiss Parliament just quoted, as to the provision made in the Swiss Army for the families of ordinary soldiers or subalterns, is one of considerable interest. The sums allowed will seem very small to British and American readers. To ascertain how this part of the Swiss Army system works, I thought I could not do better than apply to a leading social democrat. He began by reminding me of the pay of an ordinary soldier—80 centimes a day, or not quite eightpence in English money; a lance-corporal, 90 centimes, a corporal, Frs. 1.20 (or not quite a shilling); a cavalry sergeant-major, Fr. 1.50; a colour-sergeant, Frs. 2.50 (2s.), and an adjutant-subaltern, Frs. 3.

"Besides these sums," he said, "the wife

of a soldier or any one of the subalterns in the categories just mentioned, is entitled without any exception to Frs. 2 a day and 70 centimes a day for each child, *in towns*. In the country only Fr. 1.50 a day is allowed the wife, and 50 centimes for each child. The parents, sisters and brothers of a soldier are also entitled to support if they were dependent on him before he went to do his military service. The sums paid them are the same as those paid to the wife—that is, in case of the brothers and sisters having already reached their twentieth year. If under this age, they are considered as children, and paid accordingly.

“Nevertheless I would point out that the total daily amount paid to a soldier or subaltern on service may not in any case exceed one franc less than what he earned daily in his civilian capacity before doing his military service. That is, if a soldier, for instance, has a wife and eight children, but before doing his military service earned only six francs a day, his family will not receive 70 centimes multiplied by eight per day for the children and 2 francs for the wife, or Frs. 7.60 daily, but only 5 francs,

or 4s., allowance being made for the sum which the father is getting when on service."

While admitting the suitability of the Swiss military system for the Swiss working-man, this social democrat added:—

"I doubt whether it would answer in England."

On being asked why, he said:—

"Because the Swiss working-man has still got a dash of the peasant in his composition—of the peasant, that is to say, who has always formed the backbone of the Swiss population, and who has inherited for centuries past certain military instincts, which are bred of the necessity for self-defence, and which make it natural for him to perform certain military duties, such as keeping a rifle in order and learning to shoot. Moreover, the Swiss in general are very fond of the open air. Witness, for instance, the way they all troop outside the towns into the country on the first fine Sunday in spring and on any fine Sunday in fact. Our working-men take a pride in being entrusted with the keeping of their rifles and uniforms. Do you think your working-men would do likewise? What you

must do is to educate them to understand that it is no longer possible to depend merely upon a paid army, but that 'England expects every man to do his duty,' whether he is a miner, a factory worker, or a mechanic."

A WATCHMAKER'S VIEWS

The watchmaking industry, as everyone knows, is one of the most important in Switzerland, and quite the most important in French-speaking Switzerland. I thought it well, therefore, to ask several men engaged in this business as to what their experience had been. They took no less pride than other Swiss in their military organisation and in their army as a fighting force, one of them in particular laying stress on the fact that there are many Swiss soldiers who are such good marksmen as to be sure of lodging a bullet in a target 1 ft. $3\frac{1}{2}$ in. to 1 ft. 8 in. diameter at a distance of 300 to 400 metres (328 to 438 yards). A watchmaker of Le Locle, a place noted both in England and the United States for the excellence and precision of its timepieces, said, in answer to my questions:—

“My military service did my health absolutely no harm, in short, nothing but good. The six or seven weeks which I spent in a recruits' school at the age of twenty and the eleven to eighteen days devoted in after years either to repetition courses, or, every second year, to manœuvres, were for me a fresh air cure, which was all the more beneficial because of my occupation as a watchmaker being so sedentary. Of course, if military service is to do a man so much good, some prudence must be exercised. For instance, on returning from a march, soaked to the skin, he must immediately change his clothes.

“Military service for a short period, such as I went through, does not in any way unfit even a watchmaker for his profession, which requires of course the greatest delicacy of touch; but a period of service lasting several years might naturally be very injurious to him from this point of view.”

On the whole the Swiss soldiers bear testimony to the good relations existing between officers and men, but it is regrettable that a certain number of officers who have been trained and largely educated in



AMMUNITION AND PROVISIONS CONVOYS.

Germany and who have married German wives should have attempted to introduce Prussian military methods, such as bawling at their men, and considering themselves a caste apart from the ordinary soldiers, above criticism and to be screened at all costs if found defaulting. The extremely democratic sentiments prevailing in the Swiss Army, however, and the fact of every soldier being a voter are powerful checks on such abuses.

Another Swiss watchmaker, who was for several years in England, says:—

“Looking at military service from the point of view of a watchmaker I can only confirm the fact that those in my line of life derive benefits from it which are not to be ignored. For instance, it is obvious how much good it does men accustomed to be always sitting to be obliged to spend a certain amount of time in the open air, engaged in pretty severe physical exertion. I have often noticed that men with a weak constitution have not only improved in physical health and developed under the influence of military training, but also become so much hardened as to be able to

endure exposure in all weathers. This is a benefit the good effects of which are felt for long afterwards, even in later life.

“Attending repetition courses every year for a long succession of years is also looked on by many soldiers as a welcome change from the drudgery of every-day life, besides which it of course helps to prevent their forgetting what they have already learned, and, in fact, teaches it them over again and better.

“Speaking of the physical benefits derived from military service must not make me forget the good moral effects. A man becomes unconsciously inured to discipline, regularity and order, and often so thoroughly inured that he never quite loses the good habits acquired. Although the life of a soldier entails a certain amount of toil and fatigue, nevertheless, there is not one of them who does not always like to look back on the pleasant hours spent with his comrades when the day's labours were over. No one, I am convinced, will ever regret having joined the colours.

“As for the man liable for military service being likely to lose his billet in

consequence of his absence, this is not so great a danger as might be supposed. I am speaking, of course, of a country where military service is universal, where the employer has to go as well as his employee. In most cases the employees return to their work without difficulty after their service is over; and in particular it very seldom happens that anyone loses his work because of attending a repetition course. The employer is quite ready to put up with the temporary absence of a capable workman, especially if he can count on his coming back again at a certain definite time. Generally speaking, in fact, both employer and employed easily adapt themselves to what they know to be an unalterable institution."

* * * * *

Unfriendly critics might, I am aware, say that I chose the Swiss whose opinions I have just cited on account of their being specially well disposed to military service. This, however, would be wholly unjust. I chose them partly because I was personally acquainted with them; partly because I knew that they occupied good

positions and were representative of their own special class or profession; and partly because no single one of them knew any of the others. In fact, not one of those consulted was aware of the opinion of anyone else having been taken. I have gathered many similar testimonies, whereof those appearing here are but a selection.

CHAPTER IX

HOW THE SWISS ARMY MOBILISES

THE best proof of the value of having a citizens' army well trained and equipped, was the ease and rapidity with which the Swiss Army mobilised in August, 1914. That the Swiss Government knew, and had known for some time, how critical was the European situation, I have no doubt whatever. They knew it, in fact, long before many other and greater Governments, except that of Germany, were at all alive to the danger ahead.

On May 15th, 1914, that is two and a half months before the outbreak of war, the President of the Swiss Confederation,* in opening the Swiss National Exhibition, made a significant allusion to the "dark clouds arising on the political horizon," and to the necessity of Switzerland being prepared at any moment to defend her

* President Hoffmann, now, 1916, permanent head of the Political Department.

frontiers and to preserve her own small place in the sun. His tone, as I well remember, was very grave. I have reason to believe that long before this date Switzerland was already laying in supplies of cereals and coal, in anticipation of a possible European war.

Now, anyone resident in Switzerland during the period immediately preceding the war, and in touch with Government circles, knew of the "dark clouds" on the political horizon to which the then President referred. I may here perhaps be allowed a personal digression. At the time when, in the heart of Europe, the European situation was first seen to be becoming seriously menacing, I reported the fact to a London paper for which I was working. For some reason, however, the editor did not think it worth his while, or perhaps did not consider it desirable, to publish my warning despatch. Very shortly after the Swiss President's speech, and taking as a text his remarks about "dark clouds gathering," I sent an article on the subject to one of the best known London monthly reviews; but on the 15th of August, 1914, I received

it back, with an apology for having neglected to publish it until too late. The editor probably thought that the Swiss were allowing themselves to be needlessly tormented by the fear of a European war, the possibility of which, as we now know, has too often been absent from the British mind, but is never absent from that of the Swiss, stationed as they are in the very centre of Europe. It is, therefore, only natural that they should have realised at all periods in their history the necessity of being in a position to defend themselves against attack or invasion.

It is true that since the war the Swiss Army has not fired a shot, except at enemy aeroplanes; but it has shown how speedily it can mobilise, and also given a striking demonstration of the difference between the treatment which a country able to put several hundred thousand armed and trained soldiers on its frontiers may expect from a belligerent such as Germany, and the treatment which may be confidently expected by one unable to do so. I shall never forget, nor will any of those who witnessed it forget, the conduct of the

Swiss Army at mobilisation time, during the memorable early days of August, 1914; but as the European war is still raging, and Switzerland, on whose soil I am writing, is still in a condition of armed neutrality, it is obviously preferable that I should not describe in detail the manner in which a general mobilisation takes place—that is, the mobilisation of all six army divisions simultaneously. I will content myself, therefore, with saying that the mobilisation placards were out early on Saturday afternoon (August 1st, Independence Day, the great Swiss national holiday), and early on the afternoon of the following Wednesday the troops took the oath of fidelity to the flag, the frontier being already guarded.

As a rule, one month's notice is given when a division is to be mobilised, not because it cannot be mobilised immediately, but in order to avoid more disturbance of civilian life than is absolutely necessary. As the reasons for not describing a general mobilisation in detail do not apply to describing the mobilisation of a single division, I will give some account of the process of calling up the third division, in



ADMINISTERING THE OATH.

"Officers, subalterns, and soldiers swear or vow :—To be loyal to the Confederation ; to shrink from no sacrifice for the defence of their country and of its constitution ; never to desert the flag ; faithfully to abide by military regulations ; to render prompt and precise obedience to their superiors' orders ; to quit them always like men ; and to do everything necessary for the honour and freedom of their country."

June, 1915. This division, together with the first, both of which were disbanded only in the previous March, were then again mobilised in order to relieve the second and fourth divisions.

About a month before the date appointed for mobilisation, posters were pasted up in railway stations, post-offices, and other places of public resort where everyone was sure to see them. Notices were also inserted in the newspapers, and a card sent to each man belonging to the division to be called up. The posters, of course, contained all necessary details as to when and where each battalion must report itself. In this particular case the place appointed was just outside Berne, where arrangements were made for examining the horses, waggons, etc., commandeered for army requirements.

On June 21st, the first day of mobilisation, at 4 p.m., the staffs of the various organisations, the men of the field artillery, and the horses and waggons requisitioned for the infantry were reported. The staffs prepared for the work of the following day, and the field artillery underwent a personal and sanitary inspection of men and kits.

(It must be remembered that every Swiss soldier keeps in his possession at all times complete his personal military equipment, and is therefore fully equipped when he reports himself.)

The horses and waggons were examined and appraised by officers specially designated, after which those accepted were branded—the horses on the hoof—and assigned to their various departments.

On the morning of the second day, at 9 a.m., the infantry, cavalry, machine-gun companies, engineers, telegraph companies, etc., etc., reported at the assembly places, which had previously been assigned and plainly marked. The troops were formed by companies, and the officers proceeded at once with the personal inspection of men and kits, after which details were sent to the storehouses to obtain the strictly company property, such as baggage waggons, harness, travelling kitchens, ammunition caisson, blankets, intrenching tools, lanterns, etc., which had been carefully stored by the various battalions. The waggons were packed near the storehouse, and the loading was soon completed. There was no con-



MACHINE GUN SECTION.

fusion, as all details had been properly arranged. By 3 p.m. many of the companies were ready to move to their cantonments, and by 5 p.m. all except artillery had been equipped, harness fitted, etc., and had started for their cantonments in or near Berne. The unmounted troops were assigned to schoolhouses in Berne, the schools closing for as long as might be necessary. The mounted troops were quartered in villages near, where accommodation was found for horses and men. The schoolhouses were provided with straw for bedding, and the villages furnished ample straw for horse litter.

The examination of horses for the trains was continued during this, the second day. The cavalry men reported each with his own horse and equipment, so that they were soon ready. They left about 4 p.m. for their cantonment.

On the morning of the third day the horses for the artillery were reported, examined, and assigned to the batteries which had spent the previous day in getting all material from the storehouses. This day was spent by all troops in "shaking

down"—that is, in adjusting harness, clothes, and equipment, and making any changes or repairs necessary and at the same time having drill of some kind.

On the morning of the fourth day, at 4 a.m., 43 hours after reporting, the first troop train (one battalion of infantry), left Berne station, other trains leaving at intervals of one hour.

The horses and waggons belonging to these troops were being loaded at the same time on a siding specially prepared for military use, the track being lowered sufficiently to bring the floor of all the trucks on the same level as the ground surface alongside, thus making it possible to load all simultaneously.

As Switzerland is not a country of great distances, and as the troops can do very well for some time on bread and cheese, which they carry in their rucksacks, the troop trains were ordinary carriages and all travelling was by day.

The horses for the field artillery had, in some cases, never been used for the army before, yet even on only the fourth day after mobilisation they were working

together quite as though they had been in service for months.

The equipment of all arms, including special troops, was complete in every detail, and in excellent condition. Whenever troops are demobilised in Switzerland, their equipment is thoroughly overhauled and repaired before being put in the storehouse.

Travelling kitchens are used by all Swiss troops except the mountain battalions, who use camp kettles with small stoves and fireless cookers combined, four for each company. All the equipment of the mountain battalions is of such a size and shape as to be easily carried on a pack-saddle.

The baggage belonging to one company of infantry and one troop of cavalry consisted of ammunition caisson, one baggage van, one travelling kitchen, and one farmcart, this last requisitioned.

In Switzerland generally a poor or underfed horse is a rare sight, and those belonging to the military department have been purchased with great care, principally in England, Ireland, Austria, and Germany. Since the outbreak of war, however, some

have been bought in the United States. All new horses are sent to remount depôts, where they are carefully trained by experienced roughriders. The horses requisitioned for service at mobilisation, as well as those in the hands of individual cavalry-men, are also selected with care, and were all in excellent condition when reported for service.

As to the general impressions left by watching the Swiss soldier during the mobilisation of this division, I may pertinently conclude by quoting the opinion of a military attaché belonging to a neutral country, who witnessed the mobilisation of the second division in June, 1915:—

“The appearance and work of the Swiss soldier,” he says, “during the few days of mobilisation showed him to have so much benefited by his previous training in service (from August 6th, 1914, till March, 1915), as to make the Swiss Army probably the best-trained army, for its size, in the world to-day.

“Every man seemed thoroughly familiar with his duty, which he performed more or less as a matter of business. The

discipline appeared excellent, and of the character that is cheerfully accepted rather than maintained by force. The relation between officers and men might at times have been truly said to have been intimate, nevertheless the utmost attention was paid to detail."

CHAPTER X

THE SWISS MILITARY SYSTEM AND ITS POSSIBLE APPLICATION TO THE UNITED STATES *

THE question frequently asked by persons interested in the military preparedness of America is: Could the Swiss military system be applied in the United States? The answer must be that of course it could, but with modifications; and I shall endeavour to show how, on general lines, this might be accomplished.

The necessity for a trained army of sufficient size to ensure protection from a possible enemy is obvious; but when the question of the size of such an army comes to be discussed, then great divergence of opinion is observable in the United States. The General Staff of the Army, which has given the subject most careful study, has made the following recommendations:—

Firstly, that there should be a regular professional army of 230,000 men;

* For this chapter I am indebted to a well-known officer of the United States Army, who has been resident some time in Switzerland, and has studied the Swiss military system.

Secondly, that there should be a militia army of 1,000,000 men.

When the importance of America's outlying possessions, such as the Philippines, Hawaii, Alaska, Panama, and Porto Rico, is considered, and also the necessity for the maintenance there at all times of strong garrisons of highly trained soldiers, the utility and the *raison d'être* of the regular professional army will be at once recognised. Assuming therefore the necessity of such a professional army, it may be, forthwith eliminated from the problem under discussion, which is that of a militia army pure and simple.

The introduction of the Swiss system will, of course, be the most difficult task, and it will require several years, no doubt, to get it into working order: but, like any other well-organised institution, when once put in operation, it will practically run itself.

The first question as to the organisation of a militia army of 1,000,000 men is: How are they to be obtained? There are several possible methods. If we apply the Swiss system direct—in other words, if we

require every man to serve—we shall soon find ourselves embarrassed with riches. The problem, then, is to find the most advantageous scheme that will provide an army of 1,000,000 men. Now, many other questions arise, such as how are the men to be selected? How long are they to be available for service? Shall there be three divisions corresponding to the First Line, Second Line, and Last Line?* How many recruits should be instructed each year? How shall the system be inaugurated? All these are questions that should receive due consideration, there being so many different methods by which 1,000,000 men could be trained. For example, with our population of 100,000,000 people, there are, say, 500,000 men who attain the age of twenty each year. If all these men were passed through the recruits' course, we should only need to keep them in service two years, in order to have an army of 1,000,000 men. On the other hand, if we kept men in service for twenty years—that is, until their fortieth year—then we should only need to train 50,000 recruits each

* The Swiss *Auszug*, *Landwehr*, and *Landsturm*.

year. From this we see the necessity of finding a "happy medium" which would tend more to equalise the service and at the same time be economical as to cost of plant, equipment, etc.

Another question will be, how can this system be introduced while we have, as at present, a state militia and military schools and colleges which receive so much support from the Government? My answer would be that the State militia should be merged in this national militia. This would be of immense assistance in providing officers, armories, etc., during the first few years, after which the State militia would soon be forgotten. The question of State police might be handed over to the national militia, as it was handed over to the regular army in Colorado and Missouri in 1914; or the States might organise constabulary forces, as some have already done.

As for the military schools and colleges, there does not seem to be any reason to make a change, unless it were in the direction of increasing the military instruction. These military schools and colleges, however, should not be considered as short cuts

to the rank of officer; and it should be an invariable rule that every member of the militia must pass through the recruit's course, as is the case in Switzerland.

The geographical distribution of troops would be made according to density of population, but every State would have some troops whose mobilisation point would be within its borders. The present State armories would serve as excellent storehouses for the material belonging to the organisations in that locality. The recruit schools would be situated at convenient centres throughout the country, so that each particular branch of the service could be studied to the greatest advantage. The mobilisation points would also be conveniently located, and chosen with a view to the troops being moved promptly in any direction. In other words, a general mobilisation would cover all frontiers in greater or less strength, and the organisations in the interior would be available for reinforcements at any point desired.

As to the question of time lost from business by the militiaman, it is believed that the Swiss system interferes less with

a man's civilian interests than any other militia system. The recruit's course is taken at an age when a man can, as a rule, give his time without great material loss; and the repetition courses are too short and too infrequent to interfere seriously with business.

The criticism has been passed by many, especially since the beginning of the present war, that the course of instruction (sixty-five days for infantry) is entirely inadequate. This criticism is justified, and it is significant that the Chief of the General Staff of the Swiss Army very recently made the following statement:—"With our people, who have a martial spirit and a taste for the military profession, I consider the following as the minimum times necessary for training a soldier for service in war:—

For the Infantry, 200 days.

For the Cavalry, 12 months.

For the Artillery, 300 days."

This view is held by practically all Swiss officers.

If such periods of training are necessary

for the Swiss, then surely they must be equally necessary for troops of any other country. The experience of the English seems to have proved that for them a period of twelve months' training is the minimum required.

It will be seen that the Swiss system is not satisfactory in all its details, even in Switzerland; but minor defects may easily be remedied without altering the system.

The one great advantage of the Swiss system as to training periods is that the soldier receives his first and principal training in one single period, and at a time when it probably interferes least with his civilian career; and also at an age when military training is accomplished with the greatest advantage to the soldier as well as to the instructor.

Suppose even that the training period be increased to twelve months, these twelve months will be in one continuous period, and will be represented as service which the soldier owes to his country and himself. He will receive training, both mental and physical, such that when he is called to serve his country face to face with the

enemy he will have a "sporting chance," as the English say.

The people of Switzerland all realise the necessity for an army. They also realise the necessity for each man contributing to ensure the security of the country. Soldiering is, for the Swiss, a stern official, and at the same time personal duty. The duty is the same for every able-bodied man, so that there is no question of favouritism.

The pay of the Swiss soldier is ridiculously small in comparison with similar pay in the United States; but to the Swiss serving his country is safeguarding his country, for which he is willing to make some sacrifice. It has been said that the spirit of patriotism is as highly developed in Switzerland as in any country in the world, and that it is for this reason that their militia army has reached so high a standard. This may be, and probably is, true; but it is believed that, were the Swiss system of universal service once introduced and adopted as an American institution, it would be the cause of the growth of a spirit of patriotism there which would be second to none in the world.

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